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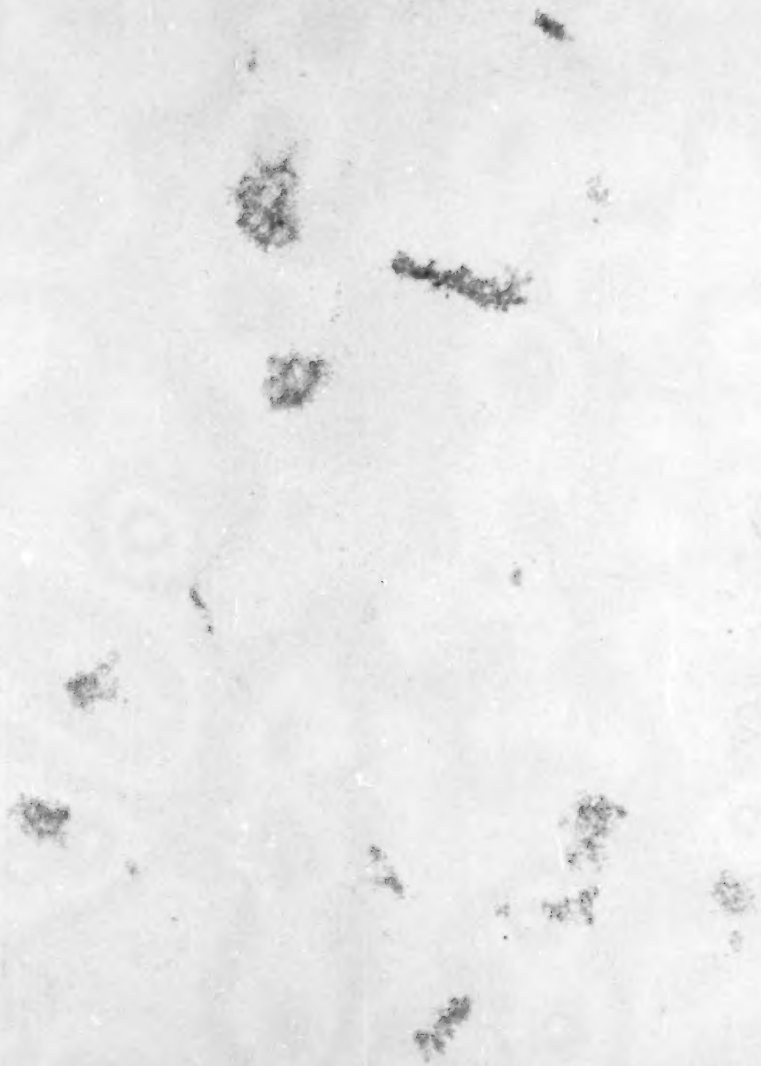

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Harold E. Jones

THIS IS ONE OF A SERIES OF PORTRAITS OF PSYCHOLOGISTS WHO HAVE CONTRIBUTED NOTABLY TO PROFESSIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

Volume VIII JULY-AUGUST, 1944 Number 4

JOURNAL OF CONSULTING PSYCHOLOGY

THE CASE FOR CHILD CARE CENTERS

BY ELTA S. PFISTER

DIVISION OF INDIVIDUAL GUIDANCE
BURBANK PUBLIC SCHOOLS

FACILITIES, other than the home, for the care of children are a grave necessity in communities where war activities have engaged many of the mothers, grandmothers, older sisters, and aunts of these youngsters. The fathers, brothers, and friends who are in active service, no doubt have experienced with pity and regret the sight of thousands of malnourished, starving, ragged, and sick children in the European, African, and Pacific theaters of war. They would be aghast to see some American children within the shadows of the big war plants at home. Too many of our children are malnourished, uncared for, and undisciplined. In those countries where armies are clashing it is not surprising that everyone is suffering, but here at home children need not be neglected. The middle and upper class American people of all races will react to the above comparison by calling it an exaggeration and, no doubt, the conclusion drawn from an occasional isolated case. Social workers, county health officers, and child welfare workers in the public schools will regret that such a comparison is only too true. Furthermore, the welfare worker, who is earnestly working in behalf of children, will tell you it is not easy to convince our busy citizens that we can lose the war at home by continuing to neglect these, our children.

The problem is complicated by typically American personality facets all gleaming from the same source. Our historical development has encouraged an individualism which has engendered selfishness and greed. At the mere suggestion of Child Care Centers, some citizens are certain that it is a political move on the part of the present administration. There are others who are sure that this nation is falling into a trap which will eventually remove the care of children from the American home, and that Russian Communists are at last in power in this country. When the California Legislature finally permitted the public schools to set up Child Care Centers, it was with the understanding that the government agencies would not make it too easy for parents to shed the responsibility for the care of their children. It is also understood that Child Care is merely a war

emergency. Other citizens cry out loudly and long about the woman's place being in the home caring for her own children. Some exclaim that mothers who are working merely want a greater income and attendant freedom from home responsibilities. They question the necessity, or the advisability, of the taxpayer to care for the children of such money seekers. While these angry words are spoken, written, and read, the government of the United States continues to urge housewives to make arrangements at home, in order to help the war effort. "Accept a Job" bulletins come to desks, published requests are in every newspaper, and radios are putting out calls for skilled or unskilled labor. Attractive wages, time and a half for overtime, fifteen-minute relaxation periods morning and afternoon, and rapid wage increases are offered. This conflict has caused what every other indecision over the care of children has caused, either in private homes or elsewhere: the child is left to his own resources. Schools, welfare, and community child welfare agencies have been overwhelmed by the problems arising with neglected children.

Investigations tell us all too clearly what this newer brand of child neglect means. Emotional complications seem to be the most serious result. The recounting of a few cases will vivify the serious effect this loss of security has upon children, which is occasioned by both parents leaving the home to accept regular employment. Many parents were unable to make proper arrangements for the care of the children in the home, and some parents have not yet seen the necessity for such care. The normal twelve-year-old son in an apparently normal family was in difficulty at school recently. His work was very poor; his attitude worse. He smoked cigarettes on and off the school grounds as he pleased. He often absented himself from school and home for periods of the day, all day, all night, or more. He was pilfering small items at school and in the community. He often became involved with other boys in malicious mischief. Following one of these increasingly serious incidents of pilfering, the parents were asked to come in to the school to discuss the problem. They came somewhat protestingly. The father explained that he works six days of the week and usually about ten hours a day. The mother works the graveyard shift in a nearby aircraft factory. The father also explained, "We have a nice house now—the best one we have ever lived in and the only one we ever owned. Our children have a roof over their heads, and that's what we work hard for." He went on to observe, "I can't see why this kid can't behave himself when he knows how hard we're working for him. *He* never has a thing to do." He was slow to realize, however, that there might be implications in the fact that his family had not had one meal together during the past six months or more. He admitted that Sunday was the only day he could rest, and that he preferred to have the three children play away from home on that day. He also stated that there never was an occasion when he worked or played with the boys. "I leave the discipline to my wife," he added. The parents were questioned as to the activities usually participated in by the average American family, such as occasional visits to grandmother or other relatives, marketing expeditions, family meals for friends or relatives, birthday or anniversary parties or surprises. They admitted there were no such experiences, nor were there any home activities, gardens, shops or play equipment, or

even home made cookies to draw the children to the home after school. This little sketch, no doubt, reveals the struggle and sacrifice that certain classes of people in the United States are making to lift themselves into a middle class status which is symbolized by ownership of a house and at least three pieces of overstuffed furniture. It is difficult for most of these well-meaning people to see that the desired end result is lost by the process.

It is quite true that the majority of women workers today are not making this sacrifice of any semblance of home life solely for patriotic reasons. They are desperately trying, although often mistakenly, to get more and better advantages for their children. They are usually unhappy and uneasy, however, with worries that cannot be shaken. Their absenteeism is indeed a problem for industry. It would be wiser surely, as in the case described, if both parents worked the reasonably normal day shift and placed the three children in a Child Care Center for before and after school hours. Rest, food, and a modest recreation would restore the family unity, the lack of which has contributed to making the adolescent boy in the family a social problem, and may cost the United States more than the parents can contribute by their extra work efforts. The nutrition, rest, and care, at a Center would benefit any growing child.

An interesting psychological reaction was evident in the youngster of thirteen who reported to parents and teachers that upon two occasions a large group of older boys had ambushed him as he crossed the railroad tracks coming home from school, forced him to go to a large gravel pit about a mile away, where they had beaten and abandoned him. The parents demanded protection for the boy from school and police authorities. The boy dramatized his experience for the school principal realistically, putting his own hands around his neck to show how he had been abused and throwing himself violently to the floor. The principal agreed with the police juvenile worker that the boy could not possibly be imagining the story, because it was too real to him. Upon later observation, however, it was noted that the boy approached the crossing to the tracks after school without the least hesitation, jumped off and pushed his bicycle across without looking to right or left, got on again and nonchalantly rode off. The parents were asked into the school offices and the case was discussed. It was finally recommended that since the boy had fears, whether grounded or not, it might be well for one of his parents to meet him at the tracks each evening for a few weeks. The two younger children, coming from a nearby elementary school, would be at home by the time the parent should meet the older child. The father explained that such an arrangement would be impossible for them, because both parents had just gone to work on the swing shift at the factory and they were away from 3:30 in the afternoon until 12:30 or 1:00 o'clock at night. They also were sleeping until 8:30 or 9:00 o'clock in the morning, and they could not see the children off to school. The mother was asked if she would not prefer the day, or the graveyard shift. It was explained to her that the swing shift covers the hours of the day when most people relax and participate in social activities, and she should be home at that time to supervise the children. She could then be sure that they would have a wholesome warm supper, some recreation or study, and get to bed at a reasonable time. She laughed and stated that they have close

neighbors who would tell her if anything went wrong. "Anyway," she blushingly added, "Daddy likes to have me with him."

It was a few months later that the same little disturbed boy from this family broke into one building in the neighborhood, stole some guns, and then broke into another store building to get the ammunition. In the company of another lonesome lad from out of state, and with twenty dollars in cash from his home, he went off into the hills to "live by hunting and fishing," as he described it. He was gone for ten days, when he was apprehended and returned to his home. His adventures included meeting a "poor old sick man who lived under a bridge, and who tried to get into county hospitals all over the United States, but they just wouldn't keep him." He innocently gave the man most of the money. He stated to the welfare worker who questioned him, "You remember that time when I said the big boys were laying for me? Well, they weren't. I just said that, because you see if they ever *did* gang on me I wouldn't know what to do because my mom and pop weren't home."

The physical needs of children, which are usually quite evident, seem to be relatively unimportant to many mothers during this period of increased activity outside the home. Instead of more carefully selected food because of shortages, the points are used for daddy's steaks and butter is used for the adults. The children eat substitutes and starches. Instead of more rest for over-stimulated youngsters, there is less. They are spending more evenings and afternoons in local theaters vicariously participating in a fictional screen life that is often far from real or desirable for them. Upon investigation, we find that there is seldom an adult accompanying these children. An older person should be with them to answer their questions, allay their fears, or correct their misunderstandings. As it is, over-stimulated children are sitting for at least two hours in big seats with feet dangling, or curled up under them, with the poorest posture imaginable, wriggling, squirming, biting their nails, hitching at their clothing, and hysterically responding to impressions gained from the film. The majority of all children attending these continuous movies like to see part of the show over again, and are often late leaving the theater. They walk miles to get home, and many of the little boys can be seen begging rides with anyone who will stop for them, either in the daytime or at night. The nervous habits of nail biting, speech impediments, masturbation, and nose picking, seem to be much more in evidence among children now than two years ago. Another type of over-stimulation is auditory. Thousands of American children, preschool and school age, are indoors every day crouching near radios listening to serials which sometimes call forth the same nervous reactions as the motion pictures. Locally, the average child of elementary school age spends forty-five minutes a day by the radio.[1] Oftentimes these exciting serials are heard the last thing at night before the light is snapped off and the child is supposed to go to sleep.

School lunches are an indication of what the average child is getting for nourishment. An examination of 250 school lunches recently showed that bread is the proverbial staff of life in this country. Only a few of these slices of bread, or sandwiches, had butter. The majority had some kind of spread,

[1] Recent survey conducted in City of Burbank, California by Burbank Co-ordinating Council.

such as peanut butter or jelly. Not a few were only dry slices of bread. In California, where fruit should be plentiful, there were only about one-fourth of the lunches examined which contained any kind of fruit, fresh or dried. Pieces of home made cake or home made cookies were indeed rare. It is obvious that many mothers do not read the excellent suggestions for school lunches given in womens' magazines and in many newspapers. If they have read them, they are often too busy to shop early enough, or adequately, in order to get necessities. Shopping today has become a technical job and demands a special procedure. With rationing of food as it exists, it is most difficult to properly prepare a wholesome, nourishing lunch for each of several children when the mother, who is working, leaves the home at six o'clock in the morning. Observation and actual count indicates that more school children this year than last are buying lunch wherever there is a cafeteria. Many children have such poor food habits, however, that it is very difficult to encourage them to buy a well balanced meal. Some school cafeterias now serve plate lunches, in order to insure a better balanced meal.

Malnutrition is actually common among children in the average American community, particularly where there is extensive war activity. This is a condition which seems all the more deplorable because it is so unnecessary. The Child Care Center, wherever established, offers a hot, wholesome breakfast of fruit, cereal, cocoa, and toast, with suitable varieties, to those children arriving shortly after six in the morning. A wholesome noonday lunch is served these children. After school there is a snack of hot cocoa and cookies, a glass of milk or some other food, and then a short period of rest is allowed before the play period commences. Parents call for the children, or have them sent home at five or six o'clock. The registered nurse examines every returning child, and is always on duty to catch the first symptoms of colds or childhood diseases. The entire procedure is orderly and systematic, and is designed to give the child a place where he feels he belongs during the hours when his parents are at work. Easel paintings made at school by children whose mothers were working or away from the home usually indicate a disturbed, unhappy situation in their lives. After a few weeks of happy belonging to the group in a Child Care Center with regular work, play, rest, and eating periods, the same children indicate by the painting medium, and through other projective techniques, that they are becoming much less tense, participate more freely in group activities, and life is smoothing out for them.

Another physical symptom of less interest in child welfare, is the improper clothing of many of the children attending public school. Little or no underclothing is worn and oftentimes no sox. Many mothers have stated that it is difficult to buy proper clothing and that they do not have time to sew. Light weight polo shirts and "longies" are standard clothing for boys, and light cotton dresses for girls. These conditions of malnutrition and neglect are true, not only in one community, but in all of the busy, bustling districts, where people are zealously engaged in one extra activity or another.

Cleanliness is very nearly impossible to achieve when families live for months in trailers. Housing is at a premium and thousands of families live in trailer courts, crowded together, sharing the use of toilets, showers and laundries. In rainy weather, these courts, which are

located in city zones not preferred as residential areas, are practically inundated. Stepping outside the trailer means stepping in mud and water. In the summer months there is dust. There is always noise.

A shift in residence sometimes means a shift in home ties also. The growing numbers seeking work in war plants precipitate the first break in families, when they leave their former homes. This is often an opportunity for one or the other parent to make other domestic arrangements. A little lad of six was brought in to the school offices one afternoon from the theater. He had been watching the movies since 12:30 when the theater had opened. He was pinched looking, thin, dirty, poorly clad, no shoe laces, and in need of a haircut. He said he lived in the rear of a restaurant building with his father, who was working, his four-year-old brother, an aunt, an uncle, and two cousins. When asked about his mother he replied, "She ran away from me." The worker said, "Oh, I'm sure she'll come back soon." The little fellow looked up with a sad but most positive expression, and said slowly, "No, she ain't never coming back no more. She's been gone a long, long time." When taken home, his story was found to be entirely correct. The seven people lived in two rooms back of a little eating establishment across the street from the factory. The mother had deserted the family when they came to California. This is one of many similar instances found in areas affected by the shifting of population. Middle class teachers, and others, sometimes forget that the culture of these youngsters appearing in their classrooms, or elsewhere, is quite different from any they have ever known. Teachers need a greater understanding of individual differences to best serve in these war affected communities. Again, a Child Care Center can be a place to which a youngster can belong and perhaps receive some substitute care from a mother surrogate.

Other divisions of the public school system are also affected by the complexity of the problems in these newly urban communities. The Home Teaching Department of the school district was recently asked to call at the home of a nine-year-old boy whose broken leg would be in a cast for some time. She was surprised to find that he was left alone all day until his mother returned at 3:30 or 4:00 o'clock. A bottle of milk and cold breakfast cereal was his noonday lunch. Upon another occasion, the school nurse called at a home to talk to the mother about a school child, only to find that she was employed on the day shift and that an eleven-year-old, deaf-mute, dwarf child was alone in the house all day. It is a common procedure to leave sleeping children alone in the house, or the automobile, for at least an hour between the time that one parent leaves just before midnight for the graveyard shift and the other parent comes off the swing shift about one o'clock. The same overlapping occurs between the other shifts. Again, many of these parents cannot find household help to get the children off to school, although the majority of these people feel that it is not necessary. New problems are continually arising. One of the most serious situations facing school attendance officers in these war industry communities is the morning tardiness and absences. There is an increasing number of homes where the father has left for the services, and the mothers have found it absolutely necessary to work outside the home. These mothers usually work the day shift. They leave at six o'clock in the morn-

ing, daylight saving time, and set the alarm clock, if they have one, for 7:15 or thereabouts, in order that the children may get up, be dressed, and have breakfast by 8:30. Attendance supervisors have called at the homes at ten o'clock or later, and have found that the alarm did not go off or that the adolescent child, and he is the worst offender in this respect, could not remember turning it off. The children were still in bed or got up too late, in their own opinion, to go to school. These truant children no doubt are contributing to the rise in juvenile delinquency.[2] In many instances it was found that the mother roused the little girl of the family before she left for work and she, being the most reliable of the children, tried to get her brothers and sisters up and off to school. Some "little mothers" as young as eight and nine years of age do very well. In other cases, they face the teachers and attendance supervisors with tears in their eyes, saying, "I just couldn't make my brother get up." These problems of Child Care for the wives of service men will need an increasing amount of attention. Transportation is difficult to obtain, particularly if the mother is a "rider." Others are not interested in delaying themselves, or going out of their way, to deliver children to a Child Care Center. It may be necessary to open more Centers within walking distance for mothers and children as the war swings to the Pacific and more fathers are drafted.

If, due to unprecedented war conditions, we have temporarily neglected children, it is only because, for the time being, our efforts have been directed toward more obvious needs of production of supplies for our armed forces.

Children are our first investment, and certainly we citizens will come to realize that these newer citizens must be protected, and carefully nurtured, at any price. We want them to have the privilege of not only being well born, but well cared for throughout their formative years. Our Child Care Centers will assist us to win the war at home by giving our children the personal security, maximum health, social training, and the stability of character they will need. Our opinions, whether political, economic, racial, or religious, are unimportant and should be melted in the unifying crucible of all-out effort to win the war abroad and at home.

[2] According to data compiled by the Statistical Division of the Los Angeles County Probation Department: Filings in behalf of juveniles in the County of Los Angeles increased 18 per cent for the year 1943 over the year 1942. Filings in behalf of juveniles increased 62.3 per cent for the year 1943 over the year 1940. During that same period from 1940 to 1943 the population increase was 19 per cent.

EFFECTS OF WAR ON CHILDREN'S MENTAL HEALTH[1]

By J. LOUISE DESPERT, M.D.

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UNDER war conditions considerable and significant changes in the family structure have taken place, but there are some requirements which must remain. One of these is the need of children for a happy, integrated life. As has been shown by a multiplicity of studies and clinical experience, the basic and essential need of the child is the love of its parents. Integration is the expression of an exquisite balance and interplay between instinctual drives and environmental forces.

EFFECTS OF WAR ON THE CHILD'S EMOTIONAL SECURITY

War conditions have conspicuously modified the interplay of these forces. Every home in a nation at war is affected in varying degrees. The fathers may be serving in the armed services, and many mothers are now working in war industries or holding other jobs which keep them away from their homes. The atmosphere of security in the home, on which the young child depends, is threatened. Along with the disruption of the child's home comes the disruption of his guidance and training, and this is especially true of the young child whose early training attempts to sublimate his instinctual aggressive drives. When aggression is released on such a large scale as war requires, it becomes increasingly difficult for the child to accept the need for overcoming his aggressive instincts.

War conditions vary from country to country, and the repercussions on the child's emotional life vary accordingly. The following groups are considered:

1. Countries at war.
2. Countries at war: bombed but not invaded.
3. Countries at war: both bombed and invaded.

COUNTRIES AT WAR

This group includes all those countries involved in the conflict which have been neither bombed nor invaded. Among them are Canada, Australia, several South American countries, and the United States of America. Aside from their participation in the war, these nations will doubtless make future contributions in the form of studies on the effect of the war on various groups of the population: in South America, the reactions of English and European children who were evacuated to this hemisphere; in Australia, the effect of contact with the foreign (American) troops stationed there. For the present, the study of war conditions in these countries must be limited to the material which has been published in the United States.

Literature.—In the field of American literature, as previously indicated by the preliminary Report made by the author [13], the principal contributions are those of Martha Eliot [15], the White House Conference [23], which

[1] The author wishes to acknowledge the assistance of Miss Audrey Stern in the preparation of this paper.

published the report on *Children in a Democracy*, and several papers read before the American Orthopsychiatric Association.

One of these papers, presented by Helen Ross [24], analyzed the anxiety reactions of children in a Chicago school following the United States' entry into the war. In the nursery-school age group were noted fears of separation and of unknown situations. With grammar-school age, specific fears were well formulated. Adolescents were concerned with their future. An increase in delinquency was noted. Defense mechanisms against anxiety were presented.

Bibring's [3] paper reported on reactions of children in London. She stated that reactions to war stimulus are not unknown; they are reactions to danger and the loss of security. There are three psychological problems to be considered: fears and anxieties, education of the children, and the problem of evacuation. Generally speaking, less fear and anxiety had been observed than was anticipated.

Neustatter [22] agrees with these findings in an article on psychiatric casualties in the civilian population, stating that the percentage of children affected by neuroses was very low.

The author presented similar findings in a preliminary report on children's reactions to war [13]. This report, based on extensive observations on a group of preschool age children, supplemented by reports from both parents and teachers, indicated that in every case where anxiety in relation to the war was observed or reported, the child had previously presented an anxiety problem. The anxiety and hostility against a specific personal object were, in some of these instances, transferred to an external, more acceptable substitute. There were two groups of children whose anxiety did not increase with the war: (1) children who, in their previous history, had recovered from fairly severe anxiety manifestations, who showed no recurrence of their earlier disturbances; (2) children who were in the midst of an acute problem, who were being treated, who showed no intensification or alteration of their symptoms. The younger children in the nursery school group were not affected, since their intellectual insight into war conditions was limited. The secure child was confident of his parents' love and of their ability to deal with any danger which might threaten him; this was not true with the insecure child.

A later report by Dorothy Baruch [2] included statements made by teachers in a child care center concerning the behavior problems observed in the nursery school since December 7, 1941. All the mothers of the children in this school are in some industrial work. One teacher stated that the high incidence of problems might be classified as withdrawing types of reaction. In her group there were twice as many children who failed to stand up for their own rights as there were children who failed to regard priority rights of others. Another teacher said that the main problems were (1) a lack of self-confidence exhibited by some of the children, (2) "a lassitude and vapidness . . . . a sort of deadness unnatural to children," (3) "an unfed appetite for beauty," and (4) "a terrible need for physical affection." At the same time, some of the members of the group revealed increased aggressiveness, hostility and resentment, all of which were expressed in destructiveness, resistance to authority or cruelty toward other children. It is unfortunate that no control period or control group seems to have been available.

Since publication of the preliminary

report [13], several articles of interest have appeared, principally about the increase of delinquency. These reports substantiate the expectations outlined in earlier writings.

Evjen [16] reports that, although statistical substantiation is unavailable, juvenile delinquency seems to have increased while the rate of adult delinquency has decreased. He attributes the rise of the juvenile rate to the many homes broken by the war, increased earning power, and black-outs.

Chute [12] analyzes the situation more specifically, putting the increased delinquency rate for all groups analyzed at 16.6 per cent. He does not think that this increase is related to war production, the size of the wartime community, or the geographical area. The causes of delinquency remain the same as before the war: lack of supervision, lack of recreation, migration, broken homes and similar factors. He also points out that the rate of delinquency among girls is increasing much more rapidly than among boys.

Thom [25] relates the increase in juvenile delinquency directly to the sociological changes taking place because of the war. The first thing to be realized is the changed status of the premilitary age youngsters, whose services are now very much sought because of the shortage of manpower. School children are now filling many jobs formerly held by adults, and their pay checks compare favorably with those received by adults. These children take it for granted that they should enjoy the privileges and freedom commensurate with their responsibilities. They have also been affected by the concentration of large groups in army camps and the migration of civilians to war centers, which have created intensely crowded living conditions in many parts of the country. In these crowded areas there now exist the problems of inadequate housing, too few schools and churches, recreation facilities and the other agencies which exert stabilizing influences on the children of a community and give the underlying needed sense of security. In addition to these sociological factors there are psychological pressures which cause disturbances in wartime. The first is general anxiety and restlessness which is evident in all parts of the population. Many people are now involved in activities which must be done but which allow them no emotional satisfaction, and many act impulsively whenever the opportunity presents itself, in order to escape boredom. The absence of any feeling of permanence in the lives of many people today causes them to discard the fundamental principles of social behavior in order to "keep up morale." This insecurity and tentativeness Thom believes to be more responsible for delinquency than any other single factor.

Remarks.—The primary conclusion to be gained from the literature is that, in the United States, the rise in the number of children's emotional problems has not been so great as anticipated, and that where there is anxiety shown in relation to the war, the same child had previously presented an anxiety problem. There is a greater and more serious increase in the frequency of juvenile delinquency, the rate increasing more rapidly among girls than among boys. This rise is attributed to the sociological and psychological disturbances of wartime living.

What are these changed living conditions which have affected almost every home in the United States? The absence of fathers is a first obvious factor. Coincidentally, more mothers are now away from home all day, working in factories or other war jobs. Often this

places the responsibility for the unity of the home on the oldest remaining member of the household, who must combine housekeeping with school work. Fourteen- and fifteen-year-old boys or girls are thrust prematurely into responsibilities regarding the home, for which they were not prepared.

Adjustments connected with care of the children are often left to chance. Sometimes relatives or friends take care of the children in their own home, sometimes the neighbors are asked to "keep an eye out for them." This type of care would be likely to increase any feeling of insecurity which a child might have, because of the absence of a permanent authority and a resultant lack of continuity. Some mothers consider this somewhat haphazard care more desirable than the care provided by trained teachers in a good nursery school, because it is more in keeping with their view that the home is the best place for the child. The same policy is applied to children of school age, who are often considered "old enough to look out for themselves."

While wide publicity has been given to the increased delinquency of girls in their teens, there has been no systematic psychological study made of these girls. A typical case known to the author is given briefly to illustrate some psychological mechanisms: Girl J.C., I.Q. 79, age 16 years 9 months, was studied in the Out Patient Department of the Payne Whitney Psychiatric Clinic after spending a night away from home. The following morning she telephoned her mother that she had married a sailor. Actually, she had spent the night with an unknown sailor. The fourth of six children, she had been brought up in a Catholic home with high moral standards and rigid discipline. One older sister was married, the second older sister was soon to be married. The patient had a "boy friend" on active duty in the Navy. She had received no news from him for several months. When seen, she appeared confused and quite tense, but told her story without hesitation. She had met a sailor a few weeks previously while an usherette at a Broadway theatre. She had seen him several times afterwards and, on a recent night, he had wanted to get her an engagement and wedding ring and had told of the money he had for her. Since they were going to get married the next day, why should she not come with him? She had probably been drinking. The ensuing event was rape, which had precipitated the confusion episode, with reality and phantasy not clearly identified by the patient. Immediately following the psychological trauma, she was in bed for a week with high temperature and a throat infection. Frustration and later identification of the unknown sailor with the love object are clearly seen. Borderline intelligence is not an uncommon finding in large groups of delinquent girls.

As the war goes on, new aspects which had not been felt before are developing in relations to children. Some fathers and brothers of young children have already come home on furloughs from overseas combat areas, bringing with them reports on what they have seen and experienced. Whether these are tales of heroism or "horror stories," they stir up children's imaginations. Some children are likely to be confused by a conception of aggression which accepts double standards: one's own and the enemy's.

The magnitude of the repercussions on family life caused by numerous migrations and transfers to industrial centers cannot at present be evaluated. Children from all parts of the country,

often mainly agricultural, have had to move into highly industrialized centers. This would require a sufficiently difficult adjustment under the best conditions, but many children have had to make the adjustment under primitive living conditions (i.e. trailer camps, temporary shelters). In most of these communities the quarters for each family are small and crowded. This physical confinement is a problem in itself for any child who is accustomed to a great deal of physical freedom. Children living near army camps, or in ports of embarkation and other similar towns, are in closer contact with the war than others.

These are numerous and complex factors which are bound to have a repercussion on the emotional life of the American child.

COUNTRIES AT WAR: BOMBED BUT NOT INVADED

British Literature.—The first impression to be gained from the majority of British writings on the subject is that the children of the nation have been affected less seriously than was expected under conditions created by air raids and evacuation. Yet there have been many problems, primarily in relation to evacuation, which these reports have presented.

A review of the publications before 1942 is to be found in Despert's Preliminary Report [13], with comment here on the most outstanding. The Cambridge Evacuation Survey [18] is a study of children who were evacuated in September, 1939. The authors found that enuresis was one of the major problems, a symptom found coincident with unsuccessful billeting. Stealing was the second most frequent symptom. Investigation of successful and unsuccessful cases of billeting indicated that previous personality difficulties in the child played an important role in determining adjustment to the foster home. Difficulties arose from social and economic discrepancies between the child's foster home and his own home. The authors suggested that future plans for evacuation should take into consideration "what might be called the 'nervous family' as well as the nervous child."

Burt's [10] investigation of neurotic symptoms in school children before and after evacuation showed a marked increase of anxiety states following evacuation, especially among girls, and somewhat among younger and only children. Like most other authors, he noted an increase in incontinence, particularly enuresis, which he interpreted as a regression associated with anxiety due to separation from the mother, or as a sign of "anger neurosis." He found "little demonstrable increase in definite delinquency." When theft was observed, it was found to be among children who had been known to steal before evacuation, the only new cases being among borderline mental defectives.

An article by Alcock [1] attributed the "strain" not only to actual bombing, but to the separation from the home and the loss of "normal sanctions." The main causes for difficulties were: "depression" due to removal from the home, insecurity in a new environment, "strain" communicated from adult to child. Most of the difficulties found were among children of elementary school age. One of the commonest problems was enuresis. Alcock concluded that "children whose chief strain was due to separation from home seemed to account for most of the psychosomatic and psychoneurotic cases, whilst those in whom the principal disturbance was one due to a physical agency . . . seemed to react much more in the way of unruly behavior."

Enid John [19] found 44 per cent maladjustment in a group of preschool age children who had been evacuated with their mothers immediately after severe air raids. Generally speaking, children under two years made a better adjustment than children over two. John reported that "the proportion of satisfactory cases is more than twice as great among the children who were below average intelligence as among those who were above average intelligence."

Bodman's [5] study of children evacuated from a hospital in the midst of a severe bombing shows that, seven months later, 11 per cent still had symptoms attributable to bombing, while 61 per cent showed symptoms when they went home immediately after the bombing.

Bodman and Dunsdon [6] made a comparative study of juvenile delinquents admitted to a clinic in the years 1939 and 1940. There was a 47 per cent increase of cases in 1940, which revealed an increase of 74 per cent among mentally defective children, and a decrease of 23 per cent among children with an I.Q. over 85. Fifty-two per cent of all cases came from "broken homes."

Bowley [7] reached the following conclusions: that children under three should not be separated from their mothers; that for all evacuees visits from their parents are important.

Dunsdon's [14] study emphasized the apathy in the first stage of air raid shock. He concluded that " . . . latent adaptation was strongest" among children aged two to five. Overt psychological symptoms were predominant in the five- to seven-year-old group, while the eleven- to fourteen-year-old group showed a much higher percentage of psychosomatic disorders. The incidence of disturbance was eight times as high among those remaining in the city as among those evacuated nightly to shelters in the outskirts.

Burbury [9] reported that the immediate effect of the separation from the home is worse than the immediate effect of bombing.

A later report by Cyril Burt [11], not previously reviewed by the author, deals with war neuroses attributable to bombing or evacuation. His first statement is that the increase in neurotic disturbance was far smaller than had been foretold. He divides psychological disturbances into two classes: serious (real neuroses) and mild. In regard to evacuation: "There is no evidence whatever to indicate that evacuation has increased the amount of *serious* nervous disorder to any great extent; on the other hand, it has — very slightly but still very definitely — increased the amount of *mild* disorder, chiefly, it now appears, by inducing unstable moods and emotional reactions that have proved for the most part temporary and devoid of serious consequences." Some forms of neurosis seem to be more readily engendered by evacuation than others, principally (1) incontinence (i.e. bed wetting), (2) an increase in anxiety states, and (3) the conversion type of hysteria in adolescents. He states that trouble at the time of evacuation was caused not only by the inadequate preparations made for billeting, but often by the hysterical tenor of some families whose children were being evacuated.

Similar studies carried out among nonevacuated children also revealed an increase in minor neuroses, although the amounts were not so large. This seemed to show that emotional disturbances in children were not due entirely to evacuation.

Among children of preschool ages the frequency of maladjustment was much

greater than with older boys and girls, reaching as high as 40 per cent. One possible reason for this which the author mentions is that the evacuation of the preschool age child was done much more haphazardly. The proposed plan for evacuation of children under five is evacuation as a member of some small nursery school with which the child is familiar.

In regard to the effect of air raids, Burt states that, provided the child is not physically injured, the mental shock of being bombed is in itself far less serious and persistent than the effect of being with an hysterical adult. The older preschool child, the child between two and five rather than the infant, seems to suffer most severely from raids.

Among the severe cases, the chief disturbances are various forms of anxiety neurosis and hysteria. Conversion hysteria is more common among children suffering from air raid shock than among young evacuees. Burt finds, however, that among children psychoses and true psychopathic states caused by the war are altogether exceptional. Most reported neuroses consist of mild emotional disturbances rather than definite neuroses.

The children of elementary school age are less affected by "contagious panic," yet they are more affected by their own imaginations. This is even more noticeable in the adolescent, where "the conflict between outward courage and inward fear is severer and more self-conscious."

Air raids have had a small but discernible effect on classroom morale. The effect is seen in heightened activity, restlessness and defiance. Hostility and signs of physical fatigue appear to be far more in evidence than fear, anxiety or well marked neurotic indications such as the lack of concentration and increased forgetfulness.

An important conclusion of Burt's is that what we call juvenile delinquency may be a more conspicuous outcome of war conditions than juvenile psychoneurosis.

An important recent report is the Freud and Burlingham book [17] presenting material gathered by these authors in wartime nurseries. According to these writers, there were no signs of traumatic shock to be observed in children who had undergone air raids without physical injury. When these children were in the care of their mothers or a familiar mother substitute during the raids, they did not seem to be particularly affected. Children between the ages of one and two years are in a stage of development in which destruction and aggression are prominent, and it is a misconception to think that they will be saddened by the sight of destruction. The real danger is not that a child will be shocked by destruction, but that it will become impossible to educate him to a reaction against destruction.

Children, the authors report, fear air raids so far as they can understand what is happening, but most children merely ignore the facts of reality whenever they become unpleasant. For children in the first stage of development of "conscience," when outside symbols for "conscience" are still necessary, air raids are feared as new symbols, substitutes for the conventional "bogeymen." A child still in the preschool age, however, shares the fear reactions of his mother.

London children were much less upset by bombing than by evacuation. Some problems arose when a child was billeted with a family whose position was either above or below that of his own home. The problem of the foster mother is evident: when she is placed in the

position of the mother substitute, the real mother may become jealous and, at any time, threaten to or even take her child back. This situation represents a threat to both child and foster mother. There is also the possibility of rivalry between foster sisters and brothers. The most serious obstacle to successful billeting, even if all the external conditions are good, is the reaction of a child under five years of age when he is taken from his mother and put into strange surroundings. If a baby is less than six months old, this is not a serious problem, for the baby will soon accept food and care from a mother substitute, having reacted to the mother only as someone who gave what it needed. In the second half of the first year the child begins to be aware of its mother as a person. Disturbance at parting will last somewhat longer at this stage. During the second year, the reaction to parting will be a particularly violent one. At this stage many children cling to objects which symbolize their mothers and refuse to be touched by anyone. After adjustment has been made by a child this age or older, nursery school teachers have the problem of trying to keep alive in the child some of his original relationship to the parents. The children live in the present and form their closest ties in connection with the nursery, which has now become their home.

These sudden, forced separations from their homes definitely have some effect on the children. This is shown in difficult behavior and deviations from normal behavior. As speech represents a very limited outlet in children, they do not talk of their painful experiences for many months. Then speech does not serve as an outlet for their emotions, but is used only when their emotions have already been overcome. As is commonly known, children use play situations as a direct outlet for their experience. When they are unable to do this, many develop "cranky" behavior, or turn towards phantasy.

Many regressions in development are due to the child's rejection of his mother after separation. When he rejects her memory, he also rejects the training which he acquired from her and learned in order to please her. A small child will normally have a setback in its habits when it changes hands. When the break is as sudden and complete as it has been under the necessity of evacuation, even older children may revert to wetting and soiling, to thumb-sucking and autoerotic gratification when they are separated from the love object. Demand for affection is often transformed back into a demand for material gifts. Temper tantrums and aggression reflect both the regression and the destructive processes seen by the child in the outside world. In cases where children have changed hands more than twice, some tend to isolate themselves completely, forming no emotional attachments.

The authors suggest that evacuation would be more satisfactory if separation happened gradually, and if the people who were meant to substitute for the mother were known to the child beforehand. Frequent visits from the mother during the first weeks of separation may bring visible pain, but it will give the child a chance to adjust to the new situation. Under this plan, children under five would all belong to nurseries before evacuation became necessary, and then would be evacuated with their respective groups. Separation from his mother would not be pleasant for the child under any circumstances, but such precautions would certainly eliminate the danger of shock which is now a great problem in connection with evac-

uation in wartime Britain.

Remarks.—As was previously pointed out in the Preliminary Report [13], there is marked agreement in the British literature on several significant points. Most authors agree on the fact that effects of bombing are less traumatic than those of poorly organized evacuation. Freud and Burlingham [17] have pointed out that the most important factor affecting the child is separation from all the objects which are familiar to him, and particularly separation from his mother.

The impression gained from the sum total of the English writings is that the symptoms in response to traumatic stimuli have been transitory and have affected principally those children who were previously emotionally unstable. The continuity of the relationship of the child and its mother and the closeness of this relationship played a major role in protecting the child from psychological damage.

As very little has been written since the original reports on the effects of bombing and evacuation, and followup studies are wanting, it is difficult to evaluate what remote effects may develop.

British authors have been inclined not only to interpret the increase in juvenile delinquency in terms of factors attributable to the war, but also to take into consideration the passage of the "Children and Young Persons Act" in any study of the rise of delinquency made over the last ten years. When a new code is adopted regarding what juvenile problems shall be brought to the court, the statistical figures prior to this change can no longer have the same value.

COUNTRIES AT WAR: BOTH BOMBED AND INVADED

Literature.—For obvious reasons, the literature from countries which have undergone both bombing and invasion is extremely limited. A few reports from Finland, France and Russia, however, contribute to the understanding of children's reactions to war under these conditions.

Brander's [8] represents the most adequate of these reports. In the Russo-Finnish war, he observed that Finnish children, with few exceptions, did not react with serious hysterical symptoms. Of all the factors which arise in wartime that must have an unfavorable effect on children, such as the death of near relatives and insufficient supervision, Brander considers air raid alarms and evacuation as the two most important. He found that the effect of evacuation was very different according to whether it occurred suddenly as a compulsory measure, in just one locale or over vast sections of the country, and especially according to whether it took place before or during bombing. In cases that had come to his attention where evacuation had been voluntary, the children were all in better physical and psychic condition than the children who had been forced to remain in cities. On the other hand, the psychological trauma from the anxiety of forced evacuation had persisted with many children even after they had reached their destinations. "One could observe not infrequently, among the compulsorily evacuated children, strong depressive reactions, as well as numerous neuropathic symptoms, such as anorexia, enuresis, tics, and pavor nocturnus." Psychic traumata were always found as a result of compulsory evacuation, becoming more serious the larger the group involved and the faster the evacuation. The most severe trauma occur immediately, but a poorly planned evacuation

may be the cause of mental conflicts for many years.

In regard to air raids, Brander is in agreement with most authors, saying that the child's reaction to the raid was usually more closely allied to his own personality type than to the actual danger. Even where there was no real danger during a raid, the sound of distant explosions would often be enough to produce fear symptoms in some children. The psychic trauma was sometimes so serious that it had a decided after-effect, as seen by the large number of cases of pavor nocturnus which followed raids.

While the rest of the European authors are still making wartime observations, Brander is able to contribute some information as to after effects. One year after the peace had been signed, psychogenic reactions and neuropathic symptoms could still be called forth easily by some situation that reminded the child of the war, and the author is convinced that the children's experiences must have left a profound mark on them for their psychic life.

About conditions in France, a recent publication [21], brought out a few observations, reconstructed by the junior writer from medical notes taken out of France by the senior writer, a pediatrician. This study shows that, in most cases where anxiety or neurotic symptoms were observed, these were a reactivation, caused by war conditions, of pre-existing symptoms. Each child reacted according to his previous personality pattern. Children were also seen to reflect temporarily the attitudes of surrounding adults, particularly in their reactions to war news and the pessimistic outlook held by the adults. Children, after becoming homeless, often seemed to adjust quickly to the new home into which they were put, but simultaneously showed behavior which could be interpreted as manifestations of deep-seated traumata. An increase in delinquency was noted, particularly among adolescents, shortly after the beginning of the food shortage. Children seemed more able to adjust psychologically to hunger than to cold. The first time that severe effects of malnutrition were noted was in March, 1941, at the Paris hospital clinics. These effects included slowing up of school performance, easy fatigability and difficulty in concentrating. Some children had rashes and skin conditions, some limped, though no physical cause could be found. These physiological changes were accompanied by changes of mood. Although, because of the shortage of drugs and food, very little therapeutic work could be done for the children at that time, the psychological effect of tying up with the clinic often brought some manifest improvements, which were probably attributable to the moral support and sharing offered by the clinic.

Rose Maurer's report [20] on Soviet Health Care attempts tc show the value of peacetime precautions designed to protect the physical and mental health of children under any conditions. In 1939 there were already places for two million children in year-round nurseries and kindergartens, and six million in "seasonal" nurseries. Unlike the situation in the United States, there the demand for more nurseries continued. To insure the proper care of children too young for nursery schools, visiting nurses went to homes and instructed new mothers, or their substitutes, on child care in the home. There were 5,000 such nurses in 1939 and 15,000 in 1940. Cooperation between the institution and the home was carried over to the school level, the school being responsible not only for the child's education but also

for his health.

These precautions were continued as much as possible in wartime. A report of the Central Pediatric Institute in January, 1943, stated that there had been no increase in smallpox, measles, scarlet fever, or any of the children's diseases at the beginning of the war or up until that time. At the end of 1942 an increase in the vitamin content served in kindergartens and other children's institutions was ordered, in addition to the construction of additional dining rooms and children's clinics. The adoption of orphaned children has become widespread, partially in hopes of preventing the "wild boy" outgrowth of the last war. Medical attention is immediately provided for weakened children in reoccupied areas. The children's consultation center and the preschool institutions continue to function, leaving mothers free to take on more jobs. The seasonal nurseries and kindergartens on the farms are more essential than ever, as women perform an ever-increasing proportion of the nation's agricultural work.

Remarks. — From the amount and content of the publications coming out of the three large groups of countries as described above it can be seen that, as the need increases for psychological studies and therapeutic help, war conditions make it less possible to carry out such endeavors. It is obvious that many acute problems need to be dealt with, as existence itself depends on whether or not they are solved immediately.

It is difficult to get a picture of traumatic effects or the complex factors operating in a country subjected to repeated bombings and controlled by enemy forces.

The Russian report seems to be too general and optimistic. The reports from France are too scanty, and from most invaded countries come sketchy studies of human interest of nonscientific character.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

In spite of the abundance of material already printed on the effects of war on children's mental health, it is apparent at once that the problem has barely been approached. The majority of the publications have indicated that the child is not so emotionally affected by the direct impact of war as had been anticipated, especially if he feels emotionally secure in his family, and if he has shared the fate of his family.

The sociological factors involved in the increase of juvenile delinquency have been analyzed by many writers but there seems to be a dearth of intensive studies of individual cases.

However, it seems to this writer that the paramount problem and the one for which there is the least available material for investigation is the problem of the remote effects of the war on the child population of Europe, and its repercussions on the individual child's development in far removed sociological groups, including the children of the United States. In size and in complexity the problem is staggering. The physical deprivations; severe frustrations consequent to family disruptions, loss of identity, forced or voluntary transfers to lands unknown, foreign customs; the initial adjustment to life in occupied countries and later the readjustment to a different political control—these are only a few of the factors which have a bearing on the future happiness and normal development of a number of children. The scope of this problem cannot as yet be evaluated in any way.

If one turns to the First World War

and postwar literature, it is disappointing to find that little work has been done on the subject. One contribution stands out: a study of the effects of malnutrition as observed by Blanton [4] during the period of the American occupation in Trier, Germany. This study was made on approximately 6,500 children between five and a half and fourteen years of age who had subsisted for three years on an inadequate diet. The investigation included interviews with the children, with their teachers and principals, with the parents in their own homes, and psychological tests for those children who were suffering primarily from malnutrition. It was found that 40 per cent of the children were suffering from malnutrition to such a degree as to cause a loss of nervous energy. There was, however, no increase in organic nervous diseases or functional disorders. The number of mental borderline defectives showed an increase of 1 per cent of the total school population. There was no increase in the percentage of speech defect normally found, but there had been a marked increase in poor, slurred speech. The percentage of children failing to pass had increased from an average of 8 per cent to 15 per cent. There had been a lowering of the school standard of work caused chiefly by malnutrition but partly by general war conditions. The percentage of children who did inferior school work had increased from 20 per cent to 30 per cent, but in general it was found that children of "good nervous stock" or good average intelligence could withstand serious malnutrition for over two years without any permanent impairment of intelligence or any definite emotional change. Children of poor stock or inferior intelligence are more likely to suffer a permanent lowering of the intelligence level, but only 5 per cent of the school population suffered injury to the nervous system severe enough permanently to affect the intelligence. The author pointed out that the conditions in Trier were not typical, being worse than those generally found throughout the Rhenish Province.

At the time this study was published, the child guidance movement in America was in its early stages and child psychiatry in Europe was only embryonic. It is not surprising, therefore, that so little attention would have been paid to the effects of the World War on the large group of children in France, Belgium, Germany, Italy and other countries where they were subjected to all the agents of war enumerated under the headings: Countries at War: Bombed but not Invaded, or Countries at War: Both Bombed and Invaded.

Whether an attempt will be made to investigate the problems and understand the psychodynamics at work in this war is a moot point. Probably the physical needs will again be so urgent that they will overshadow the psychological needs. Parallel with the comprehensive plans for the feeding of the child population of Europe, one would like to see a comprehensive plan for the maintenance of their mental health. In the United States the shortage of trained workers frequently makes it difficult to carry out the sound programs which have been formulated by the Children's Bureau, the National Committee for Mental Hygiene, the Child Guidance Bureau and similar organizations. Considerable understanding of human behavior, individual and social, could be gained through the foresight of such plans, and it can only be hoped that such studies and concomitant therapeutic help will be carried out.

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CHILD CARE AND YOUTH PROBLEMS IN A RELOCATION CENTER

By GENEVIEVE W. CARTER

MANZANAR WAR RELOCATION CENTER

MANZANAR is a war-born city. It has grown faster than war centers like San Diego, Los Angeles, or the Oakland ship yard area because it sprang from desert and sage brush overnight. The other war-centered cities began their mushroom expansion after the framework and institutions of a normal city were well established. Manzanar sprang up from nothing.

This city of 10,000 people came into existence as war emergency measure when all persons of Japanese ancestry were evacuated from the Pacific Coast. Special busses rolled into the newly created city with several hundred people a day. Tar-papered barracks were constructed, one every thirty minutes. A barbed wire fence, watch towers, flood lights, and soldiers appeared just as suddenly.

Manzanar is an artificial community. The customary pattern of family living has altered as families adjusted to this new controlled type of life. Children's memories are short and many have already forgotten what real houses, stores, street cars, and streets look like. Children have not seen a kitchen stove, a bath tub, a family dinner table or the privacy of a back yard for two years. They express themselves within the limits of their meagre mile-square environment. Their poems, stories and pictures reflect a barren world of watch towers, barbed wire fence, tar-papered barracks, desert flora and high mountains capped with snow. The only animals in their world are cats, dogs, chipmunks and squirrels.

Communal living in this artificial community has altered the pattern of family life and created problems in child care that cannot be easily eliminated. The child must first adjust to the new roles in which he finds his family members. The person most completely displaced is the hard-working Japanese mother who now has no kitchen to cook in because all families eat in common mess halls, no fields to work in because they left their farms at evacuation, no children to keep at home because there is no place for children to romp in a room already filled with five or six beds. Most of the mothers have made partial adjustments. Some work in the mess halls, they attend English classes, they take paper flower-making and sewing lessons. Their time may be constructively utilized but their role as mothers of a home and a family group is not as important as it once was.

The father's role has altered less. He still appears as the dominant member of the household. He has eight hours' work that takes him away from the family apartment each day for his $16.00 month salary. He must use varied techniques to impress his children that he is head of the family and to maintain the position usually offered the Japanese father, because his children are apt to say, "I don't owe you any-

thing; the government is feeding and clothing me, you aren't."

With the leveling off of wages, with common mess halls where all eat the same food, with organized co-operatives for merchandise needs and no authorization of individual enterprise, with common clothing allowance and identical living quarters there should be only one social level.

It is interesting to notice even with such controlled methods of leveling off the different social strata, how the young and old still struggle for social prestige. The young must belong to clubs and organizations that form select cliques. The athletic team that can come out in flashy uniforms, the club that can buy chickens from the neighboring town and give a big dinner, the boy who gives his girl a corsage of three paper gardenias, the girls' club that wears formals for the New Year's Eve Dance, all represent the same old struggle to belong to something that can stand above the ordinary level.

The lack of privacy and space has created many of the family problems as well as made it impossible for young people to have any social opportunities at home.

There is no place for young people to "court." There are meeting opportunities at church, dances, parties or at work but no place to privately talk over engagement or wedding plans.

INFLUENCE OF THE NON-CITIZEN PARENTS ON THEIR CITIZEN CHILDREN

In order to understand the problems of the children in the community it must be kept in mind that about 60 per cent of the community's population are citizens and represent a very young group, twenty-two years old and under. The majority of the parents are *issei*, who are not permitted by law to have citizenship and whose ages average 40-65 years. Because of the history of immigration of the Japanese into America the 25 to 45 age group is much smaller than in the average American community. Old parents, who are not citizens, and young citizen children constitute a population composition that creates problems that are manifested in almost every phase of a child's life.

Their information on the changing outside world comes largely from Los Angeles newspapers. The grouping together, by the newspapers, of the enemy Japanese with loyal Japanese-Americans of California has frightened the people of Manzanar. Children who were so sure of their status as American citizens are confused and bewildered. Parents, who have no American citizenship, are afraid of the future. All citizens 17 and over who are of Japanese ancestry have been called in to attest their loyalty to the United States before appointed Hearing Boards in a standardized interview.

Families were afraid of being separated, of having loyal Japanese Americans placed in one camp and the enemy alien parents in another. There were gang fights among children, quarrels among neighbors and rumors of all types to increase their fears. In many instances, declaration of loyalty to the country of birth seemed far removed from the security need of maintaining the integrity of the family group. The loyalty question, "Question 28," was frequently interpreted and answered in terms of future security rather than a concept of patriotism.

As one little fourth grader said, "Teacher, my big brother answered 'no' on the loyalty question so our family can go to Tule Lake (the center for non-loyal) together and not be separated. So, I'm not an American any more."

When the parents are too possessed by this fear of what will happen to people of Japanese extraction in America, they hold a strong influence over their children. Grown children of twenty-two and twenty-three, who are adventurous and eager to accept good jobs in the more friendly middle west states are held back by the selfish fear of parents. "I am old, you have a responsibility for your parents. I don't want you to leave my side because you might meet unkindness and even physical harm from people outside." These words in different form are said over and over to the children who want to leave the artificial life of the W. R. A. camp. There are, fortunately, many exceptions who leave the barbed wired community, and begin over again with their children on a farm or in war work.

Some of the young people find themselves caught in a hopeless circle of reasoning and rationalizing and are unable to come to any positive decision. They are caught between the fear that there may not be a place for people of Japanese background in this country and the truthful fact that they are too Americanized to adjust in the country of their parents. Most *nisei* can speak a form of "pigeoned" Japanese. Almost none of them can read or write Japanese with any facility and it is fairly well known that *nisei* are not accepted in Japan.

It has been a heavy blow for the young *nisei* who had broken away from the culture of their parents and who thought of themselves as being Americans just as second generation Italians or Germans. Loyalty and Americanism do not develop under constant public suspicion and attack. A large number of young *nisei* do not have the courage required to face a hostile public and will turn to the Tule Lake center (for non-loyal) as a means of avoiding a decision or direct action to solve their problems. The approaching draft of *nisei* without any legal clarification of their citizenship status is another confused issue for the young men to face.

The problems of the parents and the older children brought about by war events are passed on in a more confused state to the children. The rights of childhood cannot always be respected during a war time.

YOUTH AND DELINQUENCY

Juvenile Delinquent is a label used to designate a minor who has been legally apprehended for some type of anti-social behavior. Manzanar police records show 32 juvenile arrests during the two years history of the city. Delinquency and youth crime have been almost negligible. The registered offenses are 3 on battery charge, 1 "Peeping Tom", 4 burglary, 4 out of military bounds, 4 illegal use of government vehicles, 3 defacing property, 12 disturbing the peace, and 1 on criminal assault who was committed to a state institution for feebleminded. Social welfare files show only 3 or 4 juvenile problem cases that might have been termed as delinquent. The police blotter will show an occasional call to break up a gang who are disturbing church service or trying to "crash" parties.

The number of serious disciplinary cases in the high-school population of one thousand pupils is almost negligible. Disciplinary problems requiring parent conferences do not number more than 5 each semester. Average daily percentage of attendance for the Manzanar High School runs about 98 per cent in comparison to around 93 per cent found in neighboring public schools.

There are many special irritants that might stimulate delinquent behavior.

Nearly all adolescents or young adults carry feelings of resentment and bitterness about what they believe was an unjust evacuation and treatment of citizenship rights. The presence of armed guards and the flood lights from the guard towers constantly remind them of their forced confinement. The crowded living conditions, the abnormal family situation and lack of normal community outlets create a ready environment for delinquency.

On the other hand, certain opportunities conducive to delinquency are absent. There are no markets for stolen metal, junk or second-hand store articles. There are no bicycles to steal and no place to drive a stolen auto. There is no storage room for a pilfering gang to hide their loot. All of the business shops are co-operatives owned by the people themselves.

From the nature of the community we would expect more assault and battery crimes but even among adults the amount is insignificant in proportion to the population.

There are frequent rumors and complaints that girls have been frightened and chased but there has never been a reported attack. Manzanar has its "Lover's Lanes" but the police never find it necessary to do more than the customary patroling.

The residents, themselves, may say that their young people are getting out of hand and behaving in a lax fashion. Any misbehavior on the part of children is quickly known throughout the neighborhood because of the close proximity of the families. There are very few secrets among the residents and gossip and rumor travel fast.

As in any community, an accurate picture of delinquency is almost impossible to obtain because of the lack of any reliable yardstick to measure the amount of delinquency. It is safe to say, however, that the rate of delinquency in the relocation center is surprisingly low. There is no general problem of delinquency.

THE PROBLEMS OF THE YOUNGER CHILDREN

Community life begins as soon as a group of people live together. There were marriages in Manzanar before there was a church. There were births before there was a hospital. During the first 12 months after opening of a hospital, 131 babies were born in Manzanar. During the next 12 months there were 226 babies born. Since the mother has no facilities for sterilizing or heating bottles she must go to her nearest mess hall for baby food service. The mess halls conduct regular feeding hours for older babies and toddlers. The mess hall table is so constructed with awkward benches attached to the table that mothers always hold the children in their laps and make no attempt to offer an opportunity for the child to learn to feed himself.

The ordinary pattern of Japanese family life finds the mother and father very close to their children. Evacuation has accentuated this. It was interesting to note that for several months after the arrival of families in Manzanar, the mothers would not allow small children to walk about alone. They carried them to the mess hall, to the latrines and to the laundry rooms. This was prevalent throughout the camp and appeared to be mothers clinging to their children because of the mother's insecurity, for the children themselves were eager to explore and find out about their new environment. Mothers still cling to their children but not as markedly as in the first few months. The Japanese mother brings her child to the nursery and

hangs around by the fence long after the child has occupied himself with his nursery school group.

Manzanar has nine half-day nursery centers and kindergarten centers administered as a continuous part of the elementary school program under a preschool supervisor. All the teachers are evacuees who have been under an in-service teacher training program. Japanese-Americans have a natural aptitude as nursery leaders. Their quiet poise, soft voice, and willingness to stay in the child's background, make them excellent natural material for nursery school training. The preschool program has done much to supplement the family care of the crowded barracks.

Most Japanese mothers are able to nurse their babies and the older mothers in particular, are apt to nurse the child until he is well past three years old. Toilet training is begun early and rigidly enforced. Only the child with a specific physical weakness ever lapses from his strict toilet training.

When five to eight people sleep and live in one room there is seldom an opportunity for proper naps and rest for babies and small children. A sheet or a curtain may separate the child's bed but the one ceiling light is seldom turned out until the whole family retires. Sufficient rest and sleep for children is almost impossible. The preschool schedule emphasizes a rest program which does offer opportunity for sleep during each half-day session.

Mess hall feeding creates the greatest gap in the family pattern. The mess hall line is formed outside the doors at meal time and children break out of the line, join other children in their own mess hall or frequently wander about the community and eat in any of the 36 mess halls that happen to be near their place of play. Parents may not see their children all day, until bed time.

Public latrines and showers further break down family privacy. Contrary to propaganda stories, Japanese people are as particular about their privacy in bathing and toileting as any other group of American people. Parents continually complain that children are "learning too much" and are growing "too bold."

The most noticeable point of contrast between the Japanese family pattern and the American family pattern is accentuated in communal living. The average American parents take their children in confidence, discuss family plans with them and give hearing to the opinion or wishes of the children. Dutiful obedience of children to parents is undisputed in the average Japanese family. Family discussion including the children seldom takes place under the best circumstances. With complete lack of privacy, with only plywood walls between neighboring barrack rooms, and with little chance for family conversation at meal time, there is no opportunity for the family group conference. Important discussions such as relocation plans, expatriation, or repatriation are frequently rushed into without consideration of the welfare and wishes of the entire family group.

The general health of the children appears to have improved since evacuation because of a centralized community medical program. Immunization, hospitalization of every communicable disease, and close medical checkup are necessary in a city where 10,000 people have been crowded into a mile square area.

The most serious problems in child care are those that are concerned with identifying the child as an American. The very young, whose world has not yet developed beyond their immediate family and neighborhood feel daily ten-

sions and disturbances but do not worry about belonging to a city, a state or a country. It is the young adolescent who begins to wonder where he can fit into the scheme of things. War emergency measures do not offer a satisfying explanation as to why he is deprived of citizenship rights or why public opinion is prejudiced against him.

Fear and insecurity of belonging to a society and being accepted by that society is present in every age group in different forms. They are afraid and nervous about something but they don't always know what. As one fourteen-year-old girl said, "When I think about going back in to public schools with Caucasians, I get butterflies in my stomach."

Administrators, teachers and welfare workers recognize these problems and have tried to remedy them within the framework of project living. The longer these families are kept in relocation centers the more difficult it will be for them to make a successful adjustment in the outside world.

The only real treatment for child welfare or youth problems created by forced evacuation is successful resettlement in a normal American community, and a clarification of the citizenship status of Japanese-Americans will be necessary before they will be able to adjust in American communities as American citizens.

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CHILD CARE PROBLEMS OF THE NIGHT SHIFT MOTHER

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IN PORTLAND, Oregon two giant Kaiser shipyards maintain Child Service Centers for children eighteen months to six years. The Centers serve the children of mothers and fathers building ships. They are large buildings, each with fifteen play rooms, ample outdoor play space, auxiliary play rooms and an infirmary for children who are mildly ill. The Centers are staffed by highly trained nursery-school teachers who have come to Portland from almost all the states in the Union.

The Centers are open whenever the shipyards are open—twenty-four hours a day, six days a week. Like the shipyards, the Child Service Centers have their day shift, swing and graveyard. In this total program swing shift has offered many new problems and new opportunities. It has been something new to think through the needs of children, and of parents who work from mid-afternoon until midnight or later.

In the two Centers, Swan Island and Oregonship, there are now approximately 250 preschool age children who come for swing shift. At first glance, a swing-shift nursery school has seemed to some a dreadful thing. Many have wondered why families with young children would turn their lives topsy-turvey to work during the hours normally reserved for play and sleep. In some instances the adults' reasons are simple and uncomplicated: some feel that it is cooler to work at night; some, quieter; some find it more relaxing to work at night (and truly, the yards lit up at night are a sight of beauty). Some workers are straightforward in saying that they prefer the 10 per cent bonus which all workers on swing shift receive; for many wives of servicemen this is an important consideration. Some, when they applied for work, could secure the kind of employment they wanted only on swing shift.

It is important to see, however, that some parents have also consciously chosen swing shift because they think it can contribute most to their child's best de-

[1] This article has been prepared on the basis of data suggested by the following staff members who collaborated: Norah Lee Bean, Beatrice Hunkele, Julia Jacoby, Barbara Kimes, Muriel Paul, Martha Sharp, Bernice Wilson, and others, unnamed, who have contributed through conversations.

velopment. The swing shift child, for example, has that one thing which probably matters most to all children: he has the chance to be with his mother during hours when he is fresh and when she is fresh and when both have as good a chance as children of wartime do for a relaxed companionship.

Contrast the swing shift child's day with that of the day shift child. At one Center the latter arrives at 6:15 A.M.; he stays in his group situation until about 4:00 in the afternoon. He joins his mother only after he has had ten hours of group experience and only after the mother has put in eight long hard hours of physical labor. These day shift children make real gains from their group living, but it is everyone's feeling that ten hours of group living for a child under six is a long period. Equally obviously, women's labor in shipyards and other industries has proved skillful and needed, but eight hours as a worker leaves one with less buoyancy for succeeding hours as a mother, a wife, a homemaker, a shopper.

The swing shift child in contrast, at the same Center, arrives about 2:30 P.M. After his health inspection he has ample time for outdoor play, for quieter activities indoors, for a variety of experiences with other children his own age. Before supper, his time can include sand activities, jungle gym climbing, painting, music, clay work . . . . . it can be a vigorous time, or it can be a time for puzzles, or for music, or for stories. His supper time and his going-to-bed time can be a relatively relaxed period.

The swing shift child at this one Center, then, not only has the one-to-one relationship with his mother during the fresh part of the day, but has very much of a full nursery school experience with all of its benefits within a time limit that most children seem able to stand—the five or so hours from the 2:30 arrival time to the 7 P.M. sleep time.

For this better balanced day, the swing shift child pays one price: his sleep is disrupted to some extent. In both Centers, children go to sleep at about the time children their age usually would at home. They sleep in the Center until the end of swing shift—11:30 P.M. at one yard, 1:30 A.M. at the other. At the end of shift it has become the practice for parents of the younger children to come to the Center with a blanket. Parents roll up their sleeping child in the blanket, carry him to their private car for the trip homeward. The youngest children seldom awaken from a slumber which began at 7:30 P.M. Older children—some 3's, the 4's and 5's—are awakened and dressed because they are too heavy for their parents to carry. Most parents report that these children who are dressed and who walk out to their car and then undress upon reaching home have little difficulty in resuming their sleep at home immediately. This interruption of sleep is, of course, only a spreading out of the peacetime practice in which parents took their children with them to parties, put them to sleep in their host's bedroom and then awakened them for the homeward trip. It is still too early to tell whether or not it is a harmful practice. Six months of experience has revealed no obviously serious problems.

Swing shift, however, does present problems which must not be glossed over in making apparent the advantages which seem to exist. Most important, of course, is the insecurity which children feel in the experience of going to sleep in the Center and awakening at home. This will be recognized merely as a heightening of the feeling which all young children have in leaving their

parents to make their initial adjustments to the wider group situation of the nursery school. This problem can be at least partially met in a number of ways. Most important is the recognition of it as a problem by the staff. Teachers on swing shift must be prepared to give more outward affection and warmth than day-shift nursery-school teachers. They must be people who can "cuddle" children. They must have a sensitivity to the intimacies that are associated at home with the nice drowsy business of going to bed. They must, for example, not be afraid to kiss a child goodnight. The answer here, of course, is not in any one of the specific things that the swing-shift nursery-school teacher does, however. It lies in the teacher's whole feeling relationship with the child.

It is perhaps a minor part of this that there are certain verbal reassurances which teachers can give. Some children new to swing shift, for example, express a fear that the teacher will not awaken them when the parent comes. It is helpful for the teacher to say to some children, "I'll wake you up when Daddy comes." It is helpful to say to other children, "You'll go to sleep here, then Mommy will come for you and carry you home."

One aid which must not be overlooked is the very location of the Centers, close to the shipyards. It is possible for teachers to carry children to the windows of the Center and to point out just a short distance away, "That's where Mommy is working, and after you're asleep she'll come and carry you home."

But just as the problem of giving swing shift children security is also a problem with all children so, too, many of the difficulties which the swing shift child and his parents face are problems not specific to swing shift alone. Shopping, for example, does not seem to be much easier for the swing shift mother than it is for the day shift mother. Scarcities, especially of children's clothing, present problems to both groups. Inadequate housing, delays in laundry and other services are complications again for both groups. The harassment of mothers who also work is only somewhat less for the swing shift mother, so that it still remains a problem for careful planning so that the time mothers and children have together becomes *relaxed* time.

There are certain problems that are more peculiar to swing shift and these seem to rise largely out of the difficulty of adjusting to what is a topsy-turvey life. Swing shift families, for example, do not seem to follow as fixed routines for eating. Some days there may be one meal between awakening time and the time for leaving for work, other days there may be two meals. Sometimes the one meal may be at 10:30 sometimes at 1:30. Is it breakfast, or is it lunch?

When meals lose their regularity and their established times, there seems also to be a tendency to plan less carefully for them. Mothers, busy and on an upset schedule, seem more apt to turn to the foods that are most easily prepared. In this instance, the two Child Service Centers' Home Service Food is of some help. This is precooked food, prepared by the Centers' kitchens which swing shift parents can pick up, neatly wrapped, when they call for their child. This at least provides the basis for one nutritious meal which needs only to be reheated before serving.

Similarly, sleeping does not seem to operate on as fixed a program. Constant need is for the child to sleep as long as the parents sleep so that an early rising child does not rob weary parents of

needed rest. Home and Center can and have co-operated here in working out schedules. The problem is obviously simpler in the yard where swing shift ends at 11:30 P.M. than at the yard where swing shift ends at 1:30 A.M.

Swing shift children also seem less likely to have an afternoon nap. This is particularly true in the yard where swing shift ends later and where an effort has been made at night to keep children up a little later than usual. Teachers have been able to help here by arranging in their afternoon program for a rest on beds before supper time.

The child's afternoon nap becomes an increased problem in relation to the parents need for recreation. Working on swing shift they are cut off from many of the normal contacts with friends and commercial amusements. Early afternoon, in many of their lives, seems an ideal time to arrange for recreation as well as shopping for necessities. Obviously, in terms of relaxed parent-child relationships, additional recreation is tremendously important. There is, however, conflict between meeting this need and the child's need for some sleep period before facing a group of children.

To sum up, it seems a fair conclusion that swing shift potentially can offer a well balanced child's day at a minimum price. To achieve this end, however, the Child Service Centers must make adjustments in terms of program, kinds of food served, and greater recognition of emotional needs; industry, if it can, must make adjustments by having swing-shift working hours end reasonably early so that parent's and child's sleeping hours can still coincide; parents with the help that the Child Service Center can offer must think through their planning of food, of sleep, of household jobs, of social activity so that the possibilities for good family relationships are utilized and not squandered. Here is an instance where group thinking can produce results.

TRAINING VOLUNTEER TEACHERS' AIDES FOR FOR DEFENSE NURSERY SCHOOLS AND DAY CARE CENTERS

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WHETHER we like it or not, the mothers of young children have in very great numbers recently taken on paid employment [4, 5], much of it in factories engaged in the manufacture of materials for the war. Moreover, as fathers are drafted, the number of women who will feel they need to work will increase. Their children must be cared for. With the social lag what it is, it is foolhardy to expect the provisions for the care of children made by either the federal government or local agencies to be immediately adequate or the needed quota of appropriately trained persons to be on hand to man whatever institutions are established. Temporary adjustments will have to be made. Already a great hiatus exists between the needs of various communities for the services of trained nursery teachers and the available supply of these. This has necessitated calling for volunteers for nursery schools and day care centers to fill in the breech.

The hazards of the use of volunteers can be reduced by carefully considered selection and training procedures. A description of some of the forms training program for teachers' assistants or child care aides have taken is the purpose of my comments here, although it is well to remember that volunteers whose skills are those of cooks, cleaning women, typists, etc., can also be most helpful to a nursery school or day care center.

RESOURCES

The resources uncovered as various regions have searched for the wherewithal to carry forward their training programs have been legion. Usually, of course, the project has been backed by some unit of the Office of Civilian Defense. Federal and state agencies have given advice, encouragement, teaching materials, and sometimes have even supplied personnel; local agencies, public and private; educational, welfare, and social, have loaned staff members as well as their physical resources; individual citizens with understandings and skills that could be used have volunteered their services. The grade and high school teacher, the school administrator, the college professor, the psychologist, the psychiatrist, the pediatrician, the nurse, the nutritionist, the social worker, the librarian, the artist, the musician, the journalist, the recreation leader, the typist, etc., have in some training project or other put their talents to good use.

PHASES OF THE TRAINING PROGRAM

Although, theoretically, one adequately prepared person is all that is needed to engineer a training project, it is sel-

dom that such a person, and especially one with enough spare time, can be found. However, this fact need not be too much lamented, for it probably is better from the point of view of community understanding of and interest in the project for various agencies and a number of individual citizens to have a hand in it. Generally speaking, too, the greater the extent to which the persons who will be involved in one or another phase of the enterprise have opportunity to help in the planning of it from the start, the better is the cooperation and understanding likely to be.

The responsibilities of those in charge of the enterprise are usually numerous. A job analysis of some of the more pretentious undertakings in the United States would probably result in a listing of tasks such as the following: (1) canvassing the community for the personnel to man the activities and persuading the desired persons to cooperate; (2) giving publicity to the program in order to secure volunteers to be trained; (3) agreeing on the considerations on the basis of which an applicant will be accepted for or denied training; (4) deciding upon and developing a form for recording the biographical data desired from each applicant; (5) providing personnel and quarters for interviewing all applicants for the training and for interpreting the program and its implications to interested parties; (6) making arrangements for housing, light, heat, supplies, stenographic service, etc., for other phases of the program; (7) preparing or selecting a general plan of instruction, a course of study, observation guides, reading lists, examinations, instructions for the participants, report forms, and perhaps even a service pledge; (8) lecturing to, leading discussion with, and supervising in various ways the activities of the trainees; (9) assembling all study materials, films, exhibits, etc., and working out the detail of the arrangements for housing these and making them available, as well as for checking on their return; (10) securing the co-operation of persons or agencies who will provide the health examinations for the volunteers; (11) making all arrangements to bring health examiner and the examinee together, collecting the reports of the physical examinations and acting upon them, i.e., notifying the trainees of the results of the examinations and counseling with those who failed to pass; (12) canvassing the community or region to locate centers in which the volunteers may have supervised contact with young children, and assessing from the point of view of their suitability as training centers, the institutions located; (13) obtaining the co-operation of the desired agencies and working out with them the detail of their responsibilities for the volunteers, a plan for the cooperative supervision of the latter, a scheme for reporting developments, and perhaps a report form or rating scale for recording estimates of the degree of the trainee's success in her practice work; (14) deciding on considerations to be taken into account in the placement of volunteers; (15) inspecting and assessing institutions applying for volunteer service, to determine whether they meet the specifications upon which it has been agreed service is contingent; (17) educating the receiving centers as to what they may expect of a child care aide and what the training committee and volunteer may expect from them; (18) working out a scheme for keeping the relevant information concerning the trainee up-to-date and for making this available to those persons and agencies who work with the trainee or receive service from her; (19) developing some

program of inservice training for the aides; (20) assessing each detail of the training program and procedure as it unfolds, with a view to improving it on the next round; (21) reporting all developments in the undertaking to the sponsoring agency such as the OCD; and (22) providing suitable reward for the volunteers in this training program as well as publicity for their accomplishments.

In the training project for a small community a number of the tasks listed above may, of course, be telescoped or uncalled for and some may be turned over to agencies other than the training committee; but pioneer projects sponsored by certain large metropolitan areas have involved all of the activities listed above and more.

THE ROLE OF THE PSYCHOLOGIST IN THE VOLUNTEER TRAINING PROGRAM

It should be clear from the job analysis just given that psychologists have much they could contribute to a training project. Those individuals whose preparation has fitted them to assess and influence public opinion could be very useful in various phases of the recruiting activities. The specialist in the field of the psychology and education of young children could lend aid in the instruction and guidance features of the undertaking. Interviewing and other techniques psychologists trained for personnel work use with skill, surely could be applied with good effect to the task of selecting the persons to receive training.

Since there is a possible role for the psychologist in virtually each phase of the training program, it doubtless is in order to sketch in somewhat more detail the lines along which some of the currently operating enterprises are drawn.

PUBLICITY

The publicity for a training project usually has three objectives—(1) to give information relative to the venture; (2) to convert or persuade competent adults to give the time and energy required both for the training and later service; and (3) to reward by appropriate community notice the labors of those who are giving generously of themselves.

Since considerations of space forbid elaboration of the discussion of the recruitment activities, suffice it to say that while newspaper accounts, dodgers, radio comments, and notices and speeches to organizations may serve well the purpose of informing the public and even of winning over those few individuals seriously seeking at the time a corner for themselves in community war activities, a few group leaders who have become thoroughly convinced of the importance of the project and are willing to take the responsibility of communicating on the matter with their associates may be very much more helpful in motivating citizens generally to actual volunteering. Some of the groups to whose members appeal may profitably be made are the local Parent Teachers Association, League of Women Voters, women's social clubs, professional societies, college classes, churches, unions, block organizations, welfare organizations, and perhaps even classes of older high-school girls.

In appealing to these groups it is important to be able to give a really cogent explanation of the need for volunteer service. An only too frequent question with which the publicity folk are met is, "Why, if these women whose children attend the nursery schools are working and receiving high wages, can't they pay for the services they need for their children? Why should any one be

asked to offer his time gratis?"

SELECTION OF TRAINEES

Since the recruitment activities may encourage individuals to volunteer who are serious risks, some applicants may have to be barred from the training. It is generally agreed that the following would make a volunteer undesirable as an aide: her infection with a readily communicable disease, parasitic or bacterial; her possession of such a serious sensory defect as deafness, or a gross speech defect such as persistent stuttering; or marked intellectual lacks; or a body weight very strikingly in excess of normal; or a heart condition that would make any substantial exertion dangerous to her; or uncorrectable vermin and filth about her person; or irritability, garrulousness, need to dominate; undependability, uncooperativeness, etc., if these latter personality qualities are very extreme [7].

Since what may be considered acceptable in the way of service may have to depend on the seriousness of the nursery's need for service and the extent of the supply of persons who can be induced to volunteer their help, few have been willing to dogmatize relative to the qualities which make a volunteer unsuitable as a nursery assistant, except in terms of such obvious extremes as I have just mentioned. Besides, specific unfortunate qualities may be embedded in personality *Gestalten* which have compensating features. It is usually preferred, hence, merely to suggest areas of risk. For example, generally speaking, women over fifty-five years of age (some have even said forty-five) because of their tendency to have smaller reserves of vigor and greater rigidity of mind, are less good risks than women between eighteen and fifty-five, while girls under eighteen frequently lack the maturity, sense of responsibility, and insight necessary for dealing effectively with very young children. However, strict adherence to an age criterion would be short sighted. While, moreover, college training, especially in fields related to preschool education and child guidance, is an asset, it is questionable whether rigid insistence on college experience of any sort or even on graduation from high school is desirable. It is true that the high-school graduation requirement would probably screen out those with gross mental lacks, the illiterates, and the seriously immature; but it might also bar many quite capable of assimilating the education offered.

The usual requirement of a chest x-ray and blood tests for venereal disease as prerequisite for admission to the training course may seem a bit exacting. We were, however, surprised to find in the first groups of volunteers registered for the OCD course at Chicago, that about 2 per cent had active tuberculosis and, in the main, these volunteers were drawn largely from the more favored classes where medical care tends to be superior. It would be reasonable, hence, to expect the incidence of active tuberculosis to be higher in less favored groups. I might add at this point that since the cost of a chest x-ray and blood test can be considerable, the donation of these services to the volunteers seems desirable. The county public health unit, for instance, may be willing to make this contribution to the enterprise.

Some communities, instead of requiring of all applicants the specific physical tests just mentioned have made acceptance of a volunteer for training contingent on a statement from some reputable physician that there were no risks to others nor to the volunteer herself involved in her serving in a day

care center.

To turn to the matter of positive qualities, it seems safe to say that the possession by the aide of emotional poise, basic love and respect for children, emotional warmth, experience with young children, a generous amount of adaptability, a good sense of humor, a soft-spoken manner, a respectable level of intelligence, physical vigor, dependability, and special talents in music, art, or the dance, augurs well for her usefulness as an assistant to the teacher in a nursery school or day care center [7].

Since the assessment of the potentialities of the volunteer is difficult, in the main, a system of successive screenings has seemed preferable to placing too much reliance on the initial interview. After all, the volunteer will probably reveal best her potentialities when she participates during her training period in some child care center.

Before continuing to a discussion of the training proper, I might say that the initial interview probably should yield at least the following information concerning the volunteer; name, address, phone, age, marital status, number and age of children, education, experiences with children, positions held, special talents and experiences, hours of service to be volunteered and conditions under which these will be given. Notations on speech defects, obvious sensory and motor difficulties, general appearance, etc., can also be made.

Some agencies have had the volunteer sign a pledge of service before she starts training in order to encourage serious attention to the obligations assumed (the Chicago group requires a pledge of six hours a week of service for at least six months after training is complete); but this pledge is no substitute for giving the applicant a very clear understanding of the full implications of the instruction and service plan and of the fact the training offered does not in any sense prepare her for employment as a regular nursery school teacher.

I might say at this point that, of course, some volunteers who offer service may need no training at all. The programs I shall describe have had in mind merely those individuals whose knowledge of the theory of preschool education was limited and whose experiences with young children were no more than those of the layman.

TRAINING METHODS AND TECHNIQUES

The actual training methods and procedures that have been employed have, as would be expected, been multifarious; but, on the other hand, most of the programs with which I am familiar are not completely divergent in general plan [1, 2, 6, 7, 8, 9, 11, 12]. The number of lecture hours scheduled has varied from a few to twenty; discussion hours, from unspecified amounts scattered throughout the lecture sessions to about twenty-four; observation hours in some child care center, from six to eighteen; hours of actual participation in a center, from about eighteen to fifty, the total outlay in time varying from about forty to eighty hours. Demonstrations, field trips, movies, etc., have in some instances been included in the trainee's experience. The amount of reading required has varied from very little to at least the equivalent of a text book.

The core problem facilitating the trainee's integration of her learnings and making the understandings she has acquired actually function in her behavior in the day care center — has been attacked in many ways. When, for instance, in one project a number of

different lecturers were employed to present material to the students and there was a danger the course would lack coherence, an effort was made to achieve a respectable degree of co-ordination by placing on one person the responsibility of coaching each lecturer in some detail as to what was wanted from him and the place in the whole plan of instruction of the ideas he was expected to develop with the students; of summarizing at the opening of each class the essential points set forth at the preceding session; of giving an appropriate setting for the lecture of the day; of plugging gaps where omissions were gross; of leading discussions; and of giving explanations for all major procedures.

In Toledo a large group of volunteers was broken up into small discussion groups presided over by a leader. The leader was one of the members of the Toledo Preschool Council who, after the formal lecture by some specialist, worked over in some detail with her charges the material given, filled in the gaps, and dealt with the individual problems [2]. Generally speaking, groups larger than twenty-five have been thought unwieldy; and when discussion is the chief method of instruction employed, still smaller groups seem desirable [7]. However, small classes may not be feasible for lectures. Large groups are no great disadvantage.

Observation guides have been rather uniformly used to help in focusing the attention of the volunteer upon significant details of child behavior, pertinent features of nursery procedure, etc., and in stimulating thoughtful questioning.

Written reports on observation have been required by some [2] — a task which is likely to seem formidable to the trainees who are not linguistically skillful, but which, if it does not cause the latter to shy away, tends to have the value of encouraging thoughtful observation.

While it has been the rule to assign reading on selected topics, the amount and type of reading expected has necessarily varied with, among other things, the education and experience of the volunteers and the resources available. In some projects a textbook has been used. Texts for loan to volunteers who do not wish to purchase their own have been furnished in some instances through the generosity of some individual or of some agency, such as the extension department of a state university. In certain other projects the volunteers purchased and shared selected inexpensive pamphlets [2]. In any case, it is generally agreed every effort should be made to make it possible for the trainees who wish it to do their studying at home.

For lists of texts and films, as well as of pamphlets suitable for various purposes and available at little or no cost, the reader should consult the references following this article [1, 6, 7].

As one method of checking on the student's reading, of motivating him and of assessing the effectiveness of the instruction, one project has used a short-answer examination.

Most programs, in addition to giving information through lectures, discussions, observation activities and reading, have stressed the importance in the training of the volunteer of actual participation in a nursery school or child care center. Much of what the student participation feature of the training program means in the way of preparation for the training committee has been mentioned in the job analysis given earlier. It is enough to say here that how much the volunteer gets out of her apprentice work will depend on how well her needs are understood, the effec-

tiveness with which her talents are used, the timing of the new responsibilities she is given, the insightfulness of the interpretations of the children given her, the excellence of the examples of child guidance she sees, the quality of the positive suggestions she is given for improving her performance, the well selected reading matter made available to her, and lastly how appreciatively she is dealt with.

COURSE CONTENT

In the main it has seemed to me that the earlier trend toward a very heavy emphasis on contents concerned with the physical care of children, community health regulations, first aid treatment of children, and services and methods of operation of community agencies, has shifted to an approach in which more emphasis is given to a consideration of methods of child guidance, the child's social and emotional needs, the causes of individual differences, and specific techniques for handling various nursery activities. I take this shift to be due to the fact that at first there was a tendency to lean heavily on the British experience and to imitate the course set up for their child care reservists [3]. Since the British program was developed with blitz conditions in mind, conditions in which the child care reservists might have to assist in the care of wounded children, and to minister to their charges in improvised quarters, in strange communities and in any of the twenty-four hours of the day the emphasis in the program seems reasonable. Blitz conditions not obtaining in the United States, it has been more usual to think of the volunteer as most useful in the role of an assistant to the nursery teacher in the casual give and take of the play periods and routines. If the aide's skill warrants placing more than this limited responsibility upon her, she can readily enough be given more.

The following are topics commonly treated with varying degrees of thoroughness in the training courses:

- Health and physical development of the young child
  - The nature and pattern of certain phases of physical growth
  - Signs of health and also of physical debility
  - Common contagious diseases of childhood and measures usually taken by the nursery school for the prevention and control of these diseases
  - The dietary needs of young children of various ages
  - The role of the nursery in achieving good nutrition in its pupils
  - Individual differences in constitution and physical needs
- Social and emotional development of the young child
  - Developmental trends
  - Individual differences and their causes
  - Behaviours reflecting various social and emotional needs
  - Methods commonly helpful in meeting certain of the above needs
- The effects of various home background factors on the feelings, expectations and behavior of young children
  - Sibling relationships, various parent attitudes and practices, class and cultural traditions
  - Tensions stemming from the separation of the child from his family for the day
  - Tensions generated in the family by the war, desertion, poverty, separation, strange conditions of residence, employment of the mother
- Intellectual development and special abilities
  - Developmental patterns
  - Individual differences in ability and their causes
  - Methods for encouraging vigorous

intellectual growth
Nursery activities
Play
Needs met by various forms of play activities
Values for certain purposes of various forms of play materials
Methods of keeping the children constructively occupied.
Toileting, dressing and undressing, resting and sleeping, health inspection, and eating
Levels of accomplishment typical of children of various ages in each of above-mentioned routines
Common problems
Guidance procedures found helpful
Music, rhythms, story period, crafts, and nature study activities
Level of performance and interests typical of children of various ages
Appropriate activities and materials
Community child welfare agencies
Nature of services
Conditions of service

REWARDING THE VOLUNTEER

Although most volunteers see the value from the point of view of their own personal growth of their training and service experience, it is important also that they feel their labors are appreciated. Some communities have rewarded the volunteers by permitting them to wear the uniforms of the United States Citizens' Service Corps or various other insignia as well as by giving them a certificate, but these rewards cannot possibly be substitutes for the genuine personal appreciation of the volunteer on the part of those with whom she works.

INSERVICE TRAINING

Although some of our usual inservice training procedures may not be feasible with volunteers, since hands are as short as they are, the aide may be stimulated by attendance at staff meetings, participation in case studies and reports to the staff, guided reading, occasional attendance at interviews with parents or consultants, opportunity to try out ideas, and attendance at conferences dealing with nursery problems.

THE TURN-OVER AMONG VOLUNTEERS

Since training programs of the sort sketched do involve large outlays of time and energy, it is important to consider the return from this expenditure. Unfortunately, not much specific evidence is available. Out of 250 persons registered for training at one time in Toledo, it is reported 85 finished the course; but no information is offered in the statement regarding the service given by the volunteers after the training period was completed [2]. Out of 181 persons registered for the first training course offered by the Committee on Child Care of the Office of Civilian Defense, Chicago Metropolitan Area, 104 finished the course; and after about eighteen months, 26 are still assisting regularly in some center. In the case of another group of 92 registrants, 27 completed their training, and of these, 19 six months later can be found each week at their post in some nursery school.

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TRAINING FOR DISSEMINATION IN CHILD WELFARE

By ROBERT R. SEARS

THE STATE UNIVERSITY OF IOWA

CERTAIN domestic consequences of the war give emphasis to the eternal hiatus between knowledge and its application. During the last three decades, the optimal conditions for child development have been well charted by scientists and educators. Much of this information has been disseminated to a small group of conscientious parents, teachers, and community leaders, and they in turn have been responsible for reasonably good governmental and industrial planning of child care facilities during the war. The discouraging hiatus lies between these facilities and the use—or lack of use—made of them by the general population. Half-empty day care centers are going hand in hand with overfilled juvenile courts. Door key children and locked up infants are a commonplace from one end of the country to the other. The plain fact is that, in spite of the great extent of our knowledge and of our official alleviating measures, a vast proportion of American parents appear to have little realization of the future effects of the nutritional, medical, and social supervisory neglect to which they are voluntarily subjecting their children at the present time.

This situation requires educational treatment. In effect, a large mass of our population does not possess knowledge which is important for the welfare of the next generation. Unfortunately, the adults who need to be educated are not easily available; they are neither in schools nor in such self-educating groups as the Parent Teacher Association. Further, there is no evidence that they are aware of their ignorance, or have motivation for removing it.

One solution to this predicament lies in the utilization of communication media that are already operative with this part of the population. If sound principles of child care and development can be disseminated by way of feature writing, radio entertainment, and commercial motion pictures, it should be possible gradually to change the American culture with respect to parents' conceptions of their responsibilities for their children's welfare.

To be most effective, this educational bombardment should make use of "motivational carrier waves," that is, types of format and program that have entertainment value independent of their informational content. This will require the initiative of people whose professional jobs lie in the communication fields. To be effective such people must be trained not only in the special techniques of radio or journalism or motion pictures, but must have also a thorough background in the theoretical and practical aspects of child development and child welfare.

In order to provide such training, the Graduate College of the University of Iowa has recently announced a *combined course in radio, journalism and child welfare*, which will lead to an M.A. degree in one or more of the fields of

communication; the minor will be in child development. Since this curriculum covers areas that have not been widely explored in the past, there are a number of basic questions that can be answered only by research, and half-time research assistantships are being offered as adjuncts to the training.

The *curriculum* consists of two main parts, communication and child development. In both areas, *supervised practice* plays a major role. For several years, the Iowa Child Welfare Research Station has maintained, on a flexible and experimental basis, a number of adult education programs in the field of child development. These have included a Radio Child Study Program, a pamphlet series, and a weekly syndicated newspaper column. Experience with these has demonstrated the importance of continuously supervised practice of communication techniques. In the new curriculum, approximately half the student's time is spent in organizing, preparing and maintaining various kinds of programs in both daily and weekly (rural) newspapers, on the 5,000-Watt radio station (WSUI), and through other available media. This work is done under the direct supervision of Professors Wilbur Schramm (Journalism), E. C. Mabie and H. Clay Harshbarger (Speech and Dramatic Arts), and Ralph H. Ojemann (Child Welfare Research Station). Observation and supervised work with children is carried on in the preschool, elementary and high schools, and in state institutions.

The *course work* in child development includes child psychology, nutrition and physical growth, and both elementary and preschool education. A new course in dissemination of child welfare materials provides information on the techniques of parent education, the bibliographical sources with which the professional disseminator should retain contact, and the kinds of problems that arise in contemporary society with regard to children. This course, given by Dr. Ralph H. Ojemann, is the central co-ordinating course for the entire program.

The second main area of work is in whatever communication medium a student elects, including radio, newspaper and magazine writing, or motion picture or theater production. This training is under the supervision of the School of Journalism or the Department of Speech and Dramatic Arts, as the case may be. It includes basic course work in whatever is necessary to give the student adequate technical tools for his trade, but the greater emphasis is on practical work in the dissemination of child-development information. For example, a student may spend six months preparing and administering a radio child-study course, the radio news-broadcast about children, or entertainment programs that carry appropriate child welfare principles in appetizing form. Students interested in journalistic work prepare the weekly syndicated column "Understanding Iowa Children," pamphlets for parent education, and do feature writing for the college newspaper or for weekly rural papers in the State. The purpose of these programs is threefold: to disseminate information, to serve as vehicles for practicum training, and to provide reagents for research on techniques and effects of communication programs in this field.

The *selection of students* for such work is difficult. On the whole, academic people are not very skillful at the radio or newspaper business, and it is difficult for them to build up large audiences through these media. Professional radio and newspaper people often have high communication skill, but not

always an adequate background in child development. It seems more realistic, therefore, to select students whose talents are such that they will be able to find successful careers in radio or journalistic work. If such people are given adequate training in child development, they are in a good position, once they are professionally employed, to carry out the purposes for which this program has been designed. For this reason, college graduates whose vocational plans lie in radio or journalism, and whose undergraduate experience has been extensive in speech, dramatics, journalism or writing, are being sought as both students and research assistants. Social maturity is a prime consideration.

In sum, this training program is designed to increase the number of people employed in culture-controlling communications professions who have a sound background in child development and welfare. Culture patterns do not change over night, but if those who stand at the source of educational media can be better informed, their influence will eventually be felt.

EXTENDING EXTENDED SCHOOL SERVICES TO PARENTS[1]

By DOROTHY W. BARUCH

BY NOW it has become trite to say that problems mount during war for both parents and children. Parents have new problems which children reflect. Children bring to school reactions which have grown out of these problems. We are recognizing anew that teachers can do a far better job *for* children if they are doing a job *for* parents at one and the same time. Just because of war, parents more than ever must be taken into the picture.

Working with parents has always been synonymous with service to parents. Such service has implied helping parents with their children. Further still, in terms of best practices, it has implied helping parents with themselves [1].

Helping parents gain what information they want on child development. Helping them feel more capable of coping with the small and large problems involved in bringing up their children. Helping them to form close and sturdy relationships with their children. These have been part.

Because the parent, himself is so closely integrated into these aspects, still other aspects have entered. Helping parents gain security within themselves. Helping them work out their own small and large problems. Helping them become stronger and more peaceful within themselves. These, too, have been part.

NEW DIRECTIONS

The school has been of essential service to parents wherever it has performed such varied functions. The school, now, through its child care centers can remain of service in these respects. It can go even further.

Mothers, during war, are having a difficult pull. Those who are working must handle a full day's job plus home, plus family. Time is too short and too overloaded. Life becomes so closely packed with chore after chore that no stretches remain for parents and children to relax together, to enjoy each other, to refresh each other through mutual exchange. Contacts which come on top of work-wrung minutes are too apt to be tense with high-strung edginess. Such contacts fail to bring into the shortened hours of parent-child togetherness any of the real values which both parents and children need.

Extended school services are supposed to supplement the home. Obviously they do not unless teachers know what they supplement—unless they work in close touch with the home. Just as obviously they do not serve parents realistically unless they know what kinds of service parents need. Again this spells working closely with them. These are truisms.

Through keeping in touch, the schools

[1] [This is the fourth in a series of articles on problems of child care during wartime being published in the JOURNAL by Dr. Baruch.—EDITOR]

are finding that, in addition to the psychological tasks that have been the scope of work with parents in the past, they need to include some of the physical tasks that make life too heavy for parents in the present. They need to ease home burdens as much and as concretely as they can. As they do this, parent-child relationships are eased. The limited hours that parents have with children can become more richly laden with satisfaction; more sparsely frought with conflict and tension. Parents and children can build the kinds of contact which both need in order to maintain belongingness and a measure of peace. For, it is the quality of the time spent together rather than the amount of time that brings essential values to each.

Obviously, the task is great.

Parents' needs stand on one hand. On the other, stand teachers' time limitations. Their loads. The pressures which beset them. And their own insecurities.

This creates a dilemma.

And yet, all over the country, the necessity for working closely with parents is being recognized. The questions which reverberate from border to border and coast to coast are: *when? what?* and *how?*

WHEN?

Only after the *what* and the *how* of things has been decided on will the *when* become clarified. It is essential to build a philosophy soundly of *what* shall be done, and *how*. So many different kinds of things are being done in so many kinds of ways that no one school system can do all. It must choose which kinds of efforts are most needed by the parents which it serves.

After directions and goals have been clarified, after the size of staff and budgetary limitations are assayed — then those who are responsible for carrying on the program must ask: "How can we best plan and organize time so as to meet the aims in which we believe?"

"How can staff schedules be planned in each school so that each teacher who is capable of working with parents has time to do so? How can time be planned so that these and other teachers have training to improve what they do? Do we perhaps need a supplementary teacher here or there for certain hours of the day to make such things possible? . . . . What can we simplify elsewhere so that teachers san save both minutes and energy for the greater essentials?"

It is amazing what can be done with careful planning and programming. But, first, as has been indicated, there must come a choosing of *what* to do out of the many possibilities; and, second, clarification of *how* these are to be carried out. Both these decisions become easier as the *whats* and *hows* of other programs are examined.

WHAT?

Sufficient hours of service. — What kinds of service shall the extended care program furnish for parents during war? What is being done here and now?

To ease both the physical burdens of homemaking and the psychological strains of living in wartime, child care centers must first and foremost remain open for as many hours as mothers need them.

In the early days of the program it was thought sufficient if hours numbered eight plus whatever additional minutes were necessary for a mother to travel to and from her place of work. Although the center was open usually for twelve hours, the attitude was held that parents were taking advantage if they left their children for longer than work plus travel necessitated.

Now, in contrast—most programs are

recognizing that both parent and child may benefit by minutes less closely reckoned. An extra hour during which a mother does her shopping may be a life-saver. As one teacher said, "It's certainly better than having her come from work all hot and bothered, grab her child and hustle him off to market, spending half the time there yelling at him 'not to touch'." An extra two hours once a week may mean the difference between a mother's cleaning the house, uninterrupted, or stepping all over Junior while both growl and yell.

Where mothers are on swing or graveyard shifts, care must, of course, reach far beyond the ordinary eight hours. In some centers, time is so adjusted that children are left as the mother goes to work and are called for only after she has caught up on her needed hours of sleep.[2] Where mothers are on day shift, hours are also extended as necessary.

The following report[3] illustrates the valiant effort that is being made to meet time-needs of parents as an essential service.

In the agricultural section, the Negro mothers are the "pickers" of the vegetables. The growers transport the mothers to the bean fields (There are six crops of beans a year in the Ever-Glades.) as early as five and six o'clock in the morning. This relieves the growers so that they may attend the auction sales back in town. But it leaves the women sitting at the end of the bean rows waiting for daylight and for the dew to dry on the vines. It is not unusual for the heavy dew to remain until eleven o'clock in the morning. Therefore, picking cannot start until that time. But the pickers must be on the job in case the vines are dry enough to permit the vegetables to be picked earlier.

Harvesting continues until approximately sun-down. The vegetables are then transported to the packing houses and the pickers must wait until each bean has been taken into town before they may be transported home. This finds the mothers returning to their homes around eight and nine o'clock in the evening. One may easily see that a program designed to meet the needs of the Negro child must extend over a long day. The nursery schools open as early as six in the morning and remain open until approximately nine in the evening.

The white mothers are the packers. They must be at their respective belts by one p.m. However, they may have to wait until four or five o'clock before the beans arrive in the packing house, depending on the weather. In turn, they must stay at their work until every bean has been packed. At the height of the season this means until three or four in the morning. Therefore, a twenty-four hour program . . . . is maintained. . . ."

The report points out that the main drawback is the fact that parents do not see enough of their children. A further service, therefore, has been instigated. Parents come in whenever possible to eat with their children.

This measure is, of course, two fold. It keeps the family unit intact and also educates parents in proper nutrition for the child as well as for themselves. For, ordinarily, when mothers come back from field or packing house, they cut off a slice of cold hoe-cake and fall into bed.

From another place,[4] comes a different sort of attention to time-needs. As families pour into the community to take jobs in war industries, they discover that getting settled has its very bad moments. Housing is almost impossible to find. The search, however, has been made easier by the establishment of an "Emergency Center" where parents may leave their children for as many days and nights as necessary. The quest for suitable job and home can then be carried to conclusion without accompaniment of wails from over-tired offspring.

[2] *See* example given in [3].

[3] West Palm Beach, Florida. In a letter from Marian C. Dodge, Director, Extended School Services. January 19, 1944.

[4] San Bernardino, California. Information from Kate Felver, Supervisor, Extended Care. January 21, 1944.

The same "Emergency Center" meets other time-needs. Monday is the one night in the week when stores remain open. Working women flock into town to do their shopping. Therefore, as mothers desire it, the Emergency Center is open for the night to any children enrolled in the program.

Sunday care is also provided (for an extra dollar). Also care on Saturday nights. "So fathers and mothers can enjoy time together. It's the only chance many of them have." One couple, it seemed, had not had any leisure with each other for two years prior. "I believe that this sort of service saves many homes."

Care of sick children. — The same Emergency Center maintains a hospital unit isolated from the rest. Thus it renders still another kind of service and a very much needed one. It relieves mothers of endless stress. It saves them from worry on one hand over the child's receiving proper care and, on the other hand, over losing many hours of work.

In another community, a "Health Cottage" or infirmary has been established for younger children. It is serviced by the physicians of the town; and has a nurse and an aide in attendance.[5] In still another city an Auxiliary Nursery School is maintained where children enrolled in either nursery schools or kindergarten groups of the child care centers may be taken by the child care nurse when they have minor illnesses. The auxiliary unit is situated in a wing of the General Hospital which facilitates proper medical supervision. It is valued highly by both mothers and industry as it has considerably reduced the absenteeism rate.[6] In still another city,[7] "Special Care Rooms have been set up in each center. Special care teachers are designated and given instructions for carrying out hospital techniques. They are also furnished with suggestive daily schedules for bed-care and lists of suitable quiet play activities.

Still another city has attempted to work out the problem through the co-operation of the local Red Cross. Women "who have taken the home nursing course . . . . go into homes as mother substitutes or mothers' aides to care for the slightly ill or convalescent child."[8]

At least three meals. — Curiously, some of the extended care centers for the school ages fail still to provide meals that children need. Where no breakfast is available, mothers leave home not knowing what kind of nourishment a child has grabbed. Where lunch is not available, she must add the packing of children's lunchboxes to countless other duties. Breakfast and supper as needed and a well-balanced noon meal are essentials for children of all ages (plus the accepted between-meal snacks). They are essentials, too, among the services which schools render to mothers who work.

Adjustable fees.—Although the fees are uniformly low all over the country, they are still not low enough for some of the parents who need the centers. In one southern city, for instance, "Negroes do not participate directly in defense work. Therefore they are not receiving the high wages paid defense workers. Some are employed in the cafeteria. . . . Numbers work in the laundry. . . The majority of them are still domestic servants." Since they cannot

[5] Bellflower, California.

[6] Minneapolis, Minnesota. In a letter from Prudence Cutright, Chairman, Child Care Center Advisory Committee. January 19, 1944.

[7] Vancouver, Washington.

[8] Berkeley, California. In a letter from Alma Smith Chambers, Co-ordinator, Child Care Centers and Parent-Nursery Schools. January 12, 1944.

afford to pay the regular fee, charges for them have been set at fifty cents a week.[9] Through such adjustment, the schools are able to remain of service to these parents.

Easing home chores.—"It's the small straws that break the working mother's back," exclaimed one woman. An increasing number of programs are recognizing this fact. They are trying to ease home chores in a great many ways.

In some communities children are taken to the dentist[10] or to the clinic.[11] Grocery orders are left at the centers in the morning, along with the children. A nearby market picks them up. In the evening, then, the mothers instead of standing in line at the rush hour, call for packages that are wrapped and ready. In several places mothers order the main dish of the evening meal in the morning and call for it when they return.[10,12] One community works out the details as follows:

> Realizing the heavy responsibilities of these mothers, who in many cases are trying to carry on alone with their husbands in the Armed Forces, a plan has been worked out whereby they can secure a part of the evening meal. . . . On Saturdays, a list of dishes already prepared or partially prepared, is given to the mother. She, in turn, checks the dishes and number of servings desired, encloses money to cover actual cost. . . . A suggestive list of foods to balance the meal is given with the list of dishes.[13]

"This has been a popular service," comments one supervisor, "and actually assists the mother in the routine things at home so . . . . she can give more time to the children. We believe that if the mother can spend her time with her child when she is home, the child is better off and will get more affection even if this takes place in a few hours a day.[14]

Other services given by various communities include: Taking children to the barber. Arranging transportation through sharing rides when this has been a problem. Having shoes repaired. Having clothes mended by volunteers. One community even has a "Clothing Exchange," where outgrown garments can be changed for more useable ones.[10]

Through eye, ear and hands.—Observation, written communications and reports, reading, even participation in the school program—these good old standbys in parent education are still managed in some spots.

Parents are, for instance, invited to spend time at the Center for observation on their day off. Bulletin boards are replete with exhibits interpreting various phases of the program. Short folders are laid out accessibly so that parents can stop and go over one or two as they pick up their children.[15] Current articles are marked and are set out to take home.[16] Progress reports are sent home regularly. Copies of daily schedules are given out so that parents may gain more of an idea of the activities in which their children engage.[17]

[9] Macon, Georgia. In a letter from Rosalie Chaplin, Director, Bibb County Extended School Services. December 27, 1943.

[10] As for instance in Youngstown, Ohio. In a letter from George A. Bowman, Superintendent of Public Schools, March 6, 1944.

[11] As in Colorado Springs, Colorado. In a letter from Mrs. Frances Anderson, Director, Child Care Center. January 7, 1944.

[12] Vancouver, Washington. Reported in a letter from Helen Lehman, Nursery School Supervisor. January 21, 1944.

[13] Milledgeville, Georgia. Information from Nan Ingram, Supervisor, Extended School Program, Baldwin County, Georgia. (Undated).

[14] Vancouver, Washington. In a letter from Zeno B. Katterle, Assistant Superintendent of Schools. January 31, 1944.

[15] Oakland, California. In a letter from Elizabeth Case, Director, Child Care Centers. February 2, 1944.

[16] Tampa, Florida. In a letter from Elizabeth Freeman, Supervisor of Nursery Schools. January 20, 1944.

[17] Duluth, Minnesota. In a letter from Ione Lindsay Johnson, Director, Children's War Service Program. January 26, 1944.

Older children in the centers write their own accounts or bring out weekly "newspapers". Short mimeographed bulletins also go to parents at intervals.[17,18] The best of these are informal and "nonbossy" in tone. An attractive one, for instance, is set up in question and answer form on yellow paper. A parent has drawn chubby figures at top and bottom. In part, it reads:

Q: Who's this?
A: This is Johnnie Jones, Jr.
Q: Where's he going?
A: He's going to the Elysian Heights Child Care Center.
Q: Why?
A: His mother is working in a war plant.
Q: Why doesn't she stay home?
A: She will, as soon as Johnnie' daddy comes back from the Atlantic or Pacific or wherever he is.
Q: How long is the kid at school?
A: Twelve hours.
Q: What does he do?
We'll show you. . . .

We're the Executive Committee of the Parent Teacher Group . . . . and we're going to have a meeting . . . . and we hope you'll attend so you can find out just what your child's activities are and how you can actively participate in the school's development.[16]

The friendly tone here contrasts decidedly with that used in some other bulletins. Take for instance these phrases:

"It is necessary that two sets of underwear be sent to school.
"We wish to advise you that children must be called for promptly. . . . "
"It is essential that you do this. . . ."
"It is necessary that you do that. . ."
"We must request your cooperation . . . . "

Such wording gives the impression that the school is both "stodgy" and dictatorial. It certainly is not conducive to the establishment of good rapport.

In the school mentioned above,[19] parents participate in various types of committees. Among them is a Fathers' Repair Committee, with the innovation of a woman's Auxiliary, and a Finance Committee which handles the money that parents contribute for the purchase of those special "extra nice things" that are desired from time to time.[19]

From another place comes a more detailed report on the participation of parents in making and repairing equipment.

. . . . at a Parent's Meeting . . . . the Director stimulated the parents to help . . . . by showing a film taken of the children. The day the picture was taken, the director had borrowed some large equipment from the kindergarten. . . . After the film was run off, she remarked that the children were indeed happy that day because they had so much to do but such was not always the case because the nursery school did not own that equipment and their activities were more limited. She told the parents that they could help in making some new things. . . . She mentioned also that it would help if the fathers repaired what was on hand, adding, "Since then the nursery school has several new pieces of outside equipment." One father not only repaired broken things but painted the walls in the Nursery School as well.[20]

Individual conferences. — Individual contacts are still, by and large, the most essential means of working with parents. There may be casual conferences which happen as a parent picks up or leaves a child. There may be conferences scheduled in advance. Where work with parents is most successful, the casual type of conference is used mostly as an initial step or in an emergency. The scheduled conference seems

[18] Rockford, Illinois. Described by Selmer H. Berg, Superintendent of Schools. January 20, 1944.

[19] Los Angeles, California. Contributed by Rebecca Glaser, Head Teacher, Elysian Heights, Child Care Center.

[20] Hartford, Connecticut. In a report from Margaret Coate, Director, Day Care Centers. May 3, 1944.

to work out more peacefully. Planning beforehand enables both parent and teacher to set aside the time and to arrange other matters so that they do not intrude.

Can meetings be?. — Some communities are still attempting to hold parent meetings at regular intervals.[21] Others are seeing many difficulties in the way. The employment of mothers on varying shifts; the different hours at which the same shifts change in different plants; the overcrowded programs of both parents and teachers—these all interfere.

Meetings are most popular when early supper is served and children cared for until after the discussion is over. It relieves strain when mothers are reassured that they do not need to go home first to dress, that wearing their slacks directly from work is perfectly in order.

Special affairs draw parents, such as a motion picture, folk dancing, and family nights where parents and older school children enter together into games.[22] Such activities also furnish those who are new in a community, companionship which they need.

Several places are also successfully arranging very informal "Coffee Pot" session.[23] Several parents who have similar problems are asked in together for a cup of tea or coffee in the afternoon.

HOW?

To cite an example of *how* such "Coffee Pot" sessions are carried on: Two women and a man arrive simultaneously one afternoon at the nursery school steps. The women have just come off the day shift at one of the aircraft plants. The man has just finished his day at a shipyard.

"Hello," one of the teachers opens the door. "I'm glad you could all three make it this afternoon. Are you acquainted with each other?" She introduces them. Then adds, "You're just in time for coffe. Come on in. The pot's on the stove."

They follow her through the large, now deserted playroom to the kitchen.

"You can see the children through the window."

Each parent seeks out his own offspring as parents invariably do.

"There goes Bill, fighting again."

"There goes John. Only I wish he *would* fight."

"He's doing better," from the teacher.

"Mrs. Larkin, *are* children supposed to fight?"

The teacher looked up from pouring the coffee with sympathetic glance.

From the other mother, "You wouldn't want them *not* to."

From the first mother, "But they shouldn't, should they?"

From the father, "I'm going to beat mine into it if he doesn't pretty quick. I certainly don't want him to take things lying down."

"But I just hate to see it."

From Mrs. Larkin, "So many people do . . . ."

"My two fight together incessantly, and it drives me crazy . . . ."

For about an hour, they go on. Mrs. Larkin does not lecture. She does not tell them that they should believe one thing or another. She mentions at one point that it is usually considered healthier for children to defend themselves than to be cowed but that fighting is nevertheless very hard for many parents to take. "We've been brought up that way." She listens sympathetically to what each parent brings in. She does not oppose or try to "set anyone

[21] Baltimore, Maryland. Information from Mary A. Adams, Assistant Superintendent, Department of Education. February 3, 1944.
[22] Seattle, Washington. Mentioned in [4].
[23] San Bernardino, California, for instance. *See* footnote 8.

straight". She shows by her remarks that the feelings each expresses are quite natural and understandable.

As they leave, the mother who has protested fighting says, "You know, after hearing these other parents talk, I think I'm glad Bill is the picker-on-er rather than the picked on."

Because there has been no pressure to make her change her mind, she has been free to change it. No loss of front was involved. Had there been pressure or persuasion, she would in all probability have had to hang on to maintain self-respect if for no other reason.

The same procedures could have prevailed had these been parents of older children in an extended care center where more than one teacher is scheduled at least for certain afternoons.

Mental hygiene values in both individual and group work.—Group therapy.[24] They very closely supplement *Individual Counseling*. In many cases they can even replace it. The two methods possess the same essential values.

Through both group and individual work, parents gain opportunities to talk about their problems. They have a place where they can go for support. They have a place where understanding and acceptance prevail. They are able to give vent to feelings. They are able to release resentment, fear, anxiety, and guilt which mount during times of stress. As this occurs, a measure of relief follows. In consequence, they grow stronger and are more able to endure the strains and frustrations which war imposes.

The three R's. — In both individual and group work, three R's stand out which are basic to the dynamics of the process. Teachers need to be appreciatively aware of these. They are: *Release, Relationship,* and *Renewal.*

Release occurs as the parents "spills". But he can only secure the sort of release which helps if he has the proper sort of relationship with the person to whom he spills. Only within such a relationship does he gain enough relief to feel the sense of renewal that is so integral to the whole process. Only within such a relationship can disturbing, debilitating emotions be replaced with the more positive ones, which — as Rogers [5] points out — are freed to function after sufficient venting of negative feelings has occurred.

It is invariably difficult, though, for teachers to accept the point of view that getting out these negative feelings (whether by child or parent) is one of the essentials that brings "cure." It is hard to comprehend that problems lessen as these negative feelings are expelled and as the person gains acceptance and release. It is hard to see how the expulsion of these negative feelings makes room, as it were, for more positive ones to expand.

Teacher training has been so replete with the theories of learning and habit formation that the application carries over. Reasoning goes something like this: If a parent is *ready* to express resentment and does express it — then, such feelings will increase. They are being "practiced." According to the theory of "use," this will "fix" them. Then, if the teacher accords a sympathetic response, "satisfaction" will be obtained. This will fix the habit further. The negative thing will then become more deeply entrenched.

Such application of the theory, however, defeats dynamic realities. Actually, quite another series of events occur. For one thing, it is the *facing* of the feeling that is "practiced." The more the feeling is faced, the less horrible it

[24] See the description of group discussion as therapy in [8].

seems. The less it rides the person. For another thing, the *boiling over* of the negative feeling is being practiced—the letting off of steam. The more this occurs, the less residue remains. (Just as in a kettle where water has boiled over.) The more space is achieved for feelings of a different nature.

The accordance of an acceptant response from the person who is listening gives the parent courage to go ahead. It gives the parent, furthermore, a sense of not being "so utterly horrible" in having the feelings which he is expressing. Then, feeling less guilty, he can face himself more squarely. He no longer needs to be so ashamed in seeing things in himself as they are. He is then in a more favorable position to change these as he wishes. He is no longer blindly held, all unknowing, in their grip. He can function more freely with greater strength and courage. Problems which have been difficult either vanish or are more readily handled.

In the group discussion cited, the teacher created the kind of relationships in which people could express what they felt without fear of being censored. She gave them freedom to talk. She showed that she knew how they were feeling. She showed that their feelings were not abnormal but very natural instead. By her empathetic understanding, she let them know that she was *with* them; and that she understood.

In individual counseling conferences, she does exactly the same sort of things.

To illustrate: Here is the mother of a seven-year-old. She comes to the center with a challenge.

"You don't have any discipline in this place. The children have their own way all the time."

The teacher could have answered by bringing out the fact that after a long day of continually directed activities in the regular classrooms, children need chances to choose activities and to function more or less independently. But the mother's question is not an intellectual one, given out with cool scientific search for knowledge. The mother is disturbed over the thing. Since feelings are involved, it is better to answer those feelings.

"Lots of people," she says, "grow concerned about this minding business when they first watch this kind of a program."

The focus on feelings begets the expression of feeling. "I thought Madge had a nice disposition," the mother spills. "But now I'm disgusted. She's naughty and stubborn. A week ago I asked her to say thank you for something and she absolutely refused. We sat for three hours before she would say it." She pauses, glancing at the teacher questioningly.

"I know how you must have felt."

The mother looked relieved and went on, "People hate having their children be brats. After all our children are a reflection on us."

"You've got something there. Almost every parent I know feels that way. I do myself about my own."

"And it's so exasperating when you know they're acting so as to put you in a bad light. But, even at home, without anyone around, Madge gets on my nerves. Her stubbornness is the limit. I can't take it. . . ."

"I know it's maddening, and especially hard to take when you're tired." Again she is talking to the mother's feelings.

"That's one reason I started work, though, because she got on my nerves so. Sometimes I could lock her up in a closet and go off and leave her for good."

"I'll bet you could."

It would have been quite possible here for the teacher to have been horrified at the mother's feelings. But she was not. With all sincerity, she could answer with acceptance of the mother's feelings for what they were. She would feel *with* her, not *against her*. She could answer without condemnation of any sort. She knew that life's more difficult circumstances create many similar reactions.

Because of her acceptance, it is easier for the mother to go on. "Lots of things get on my nerves. I'm all nerves these days with Sam in Italy and all. I used to be all nerves, though, even before. Only not so much. Even when I was little. My mother always said I was too high-strung. That used to make me so darn mad. . . ." and she continues bringing out many long stored-up resentments.

A few afternoons later she came for her child and commented in passing, Madge has been so much better. And I've been less edgy. She's more cuddly than she's ever been. Or maybe I'm sweeter. I don't know. But I do know I felt better after that talk we had. When can I come again?"

Instead of "fixing" the attitude against the child, the spilling relieved it. Negative feelings in consequence gave way to more positive ones.

The outcome is not always as clear and quick and graphic. It comes often after more times of spilling, and after voicing complaint on complaint.

Teachers can learn. — Teachers can learn to carry on this sort of work — both in groups and individually—with parents. They need, of course, to become well oriented in the field of mental hygiene. They need to know enough about how emotions function so that things which are spilled do not seem strange and abnormal and bizarre. But then, they have always needed this sort of equipment. They have needed it to work adequately with children too [6].

Over and above this, there are certain suggestions. Like all suggestions, however, they have meaning only as the person who takes them puts his own experiences, interpretations, re-interpretations, and meanings into them. Nonetheless, stating them briefly, a few might read:

1. Let parents talk about whatever they wish.
   You may have to let them know that you're there for just that purpose: to listen, especially to *anything* that is bothering them, not solely to details about their children.
2. As an individual talks, you will want to remain "acceptant."
   This is a big order. It means: No condemnation. No shock. No attempting to "make him better." It means: Knowing, way inside, that had you been the other person with his background and with the trials and tribulations he has lived through, you'd be doing the same kinds of things. It means also not trying to stop his talking about feelings that are usually thought "wicked" or "wrong" or "bad" (like those of the mother who wanted to lock up her child and leave her for good). For, these are the very feelings which have stood in the way. They are the very ones which need to be "spilled" in order to be gotten rid of.
3. Remember, you don't have to ask a dozen and one questions "to get at" the important issues. As parents talk, they bring in the things that are important to them *if* you've made them feel *comfortable* and *well liked*. Questions, on the other hand, are apt to hamper the process [10].
4. When you do make comments, talk to the parent's feelings rather than to what he's done or might be doing.

"I know how you must have felt. . . ."
"It's natural to feel that way under such circumstances. . . ."
"Of course you felt that way. . . ."
These are good things to say. But you must sincerely mean them.

5. Don't feel that you're failing in your duty to the parent if you fail to bring out nice little pills of advice.

   People don't actually want advice. They want support. They want a chance to explore and talk about the things that are most urgently pressing inside; to gain relief on these, and then to come to their own decisions on what to do. You rob them of this when you do it for them.

6. Don't fool yourself about suggestions. They're usually nothing more than sugar-coated bits of advice.

   If you feel the urge to offer suggestions, or if you feel that the parent wants them very badly, be sure that you really do *offer* them. When you offer cookies, you respect a person's right to decline them. When you offer suggestions, however, you usually feel that the person is "wasting your time," or is somehow "not benefitting by your help" unless he does what you suggest. If this is true, you are not only offering the suggestions. You are pressing the other person to do things *your* way. And your way may not be *his*.

7. When you do offer suggestions, never offer just one. And *always leave a way out.*

   It's good, for instance, to say: "Some parents have worked it out this way. . . . Other parents have tried this. . . ."
   A parent then has more opportunity to use his own initiative and to make what he chooses to do more his own.
   It's good to say:
   "Of course, none of these things may work out in this instance. You'll know much better than I." Or, "If you decide to try any of these things, they may work and they may not. You may want to experiment with them and see. . . ."
   This leaves the way open for the parent to give up what has been suggested without loss of face.

8. As for information. Our tendency is to put faith in "objective" details.

   It's all right to let the fact come out, for instance, that many children of six are not yet ready to read. But, if it is important to a parent to have his child read as early as a brother's or a cousin's or a neighbor's child, the information will not do one bit of good. The parent's feelings will get in the way. He'll go right on pressing his child to read.
   On the other hand, when the emotional barrier has been reduced, or when no such barrier exists, the parent will be free to use the information as he wishes.
   Books, articles and pamphlets can offer information, too, as they are geared to the parent's level of comprehension.
   Just as with "suggestions," we can either *offer* the information or we can press it. We give parents an unwanted sense of being dictated to when we even *feel* that they *should* accept it. We need to remember: Maybe they can't.

9. Don't let the suggestions and information you give monopolize meetings or conferences. You'll do a much better job if parents talk most of the time and if you, ordinarily, keep quiet.

10. Listen. Listen some more. And keep on listening. Furthermore, if you can, listen *lovingly*—as if you really cared.

    That's the best rule of all.

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TOWARD UNIFICATION IN PSYCHOLOGY

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THE WAR has wrought profound changes in the status of psychology in the world of today. Postwar developments give promise of being even more extensive, if events following the first world war give any indications of what is to come. No individual or group in our profession can have the foresight to anticipate every condition that will arise. However, certain developments are inevitable and these can be foreseen and prepared for. First among these will be a great increase in the number of non-academic or applied psychologists, with increasingly close relationship to the public and growing responsibility to this public who will be their clients. One can safely predict an urgent need for a competent public relations service to assure proper representation and protection of the profession as a whole; an effective personnel office equipped to serve individual members of the profession; and a central organization for codifying, unifying and administering a body of ethics to guide the profession, while planning systematically and wisely for future opportunities and demands.

To meet these needs and numerous needs now emerging which can be less clearly seen, some type of unitary, overall organization endowed with continuity and adequate financial competence has seemed essential to integrate the fortuitous pattern of societies, national and local, which has grown up over the past fifty years. To this end, certain proposals for consolidation of the various national psychological societies have been worked out in joint sessions of representatives of these groups for submission to their memberships. Recognizing that the benefits of consolidation may entail certain restrictions upon freedom, these proposals should be carefully studied by every member of the American Association for Applied Psychology so that whatever organization may be adopted will give the maximum of benefit with the minimum of restriction.

At the Intersociety Constitutional Convention, held in New York City May 29-31, 1943 under the auspices of the Emergency Committee in Psychology of the National Research Council, twenty-six delegates from nine national psychological organizations agreed that a unified central organization is essential to enable psychologists to function effectively in meeting critical war and postwar problems and to advance psychology as a science and as a profession during what promises to be the greatest period of expansion in its history. Three possible types of organization were studied and discussed: (1) an entirely new national organization to replace the existing societies, (2) a loose federation of existing societies with each retaining its separate identity and individual objectives, (3) a consolidation of existing national societies, with a central service office to which could be delegated common business functions, while various interest groups would retain autonomy in their separate fields through

a divisional structure. The third type of organization was unanimously adopted by the delegates as affording the greatest flexibility and freedom combined with maximal efficiency and economy.

The delegates next addressed themselves to the task of preparing a blueprint for the reorganized society in the form of a set of By-Laws. It was agreed that the present sectional structure of the A.A.A.P. should provide the basic principle of organization, with a Council of Representatives constituting the governing body of the new organization. Important legal, financial and general strategical considerations led to unanimous agreement that the historical name "American Psychological Association" should be retained to designate the unified organization.

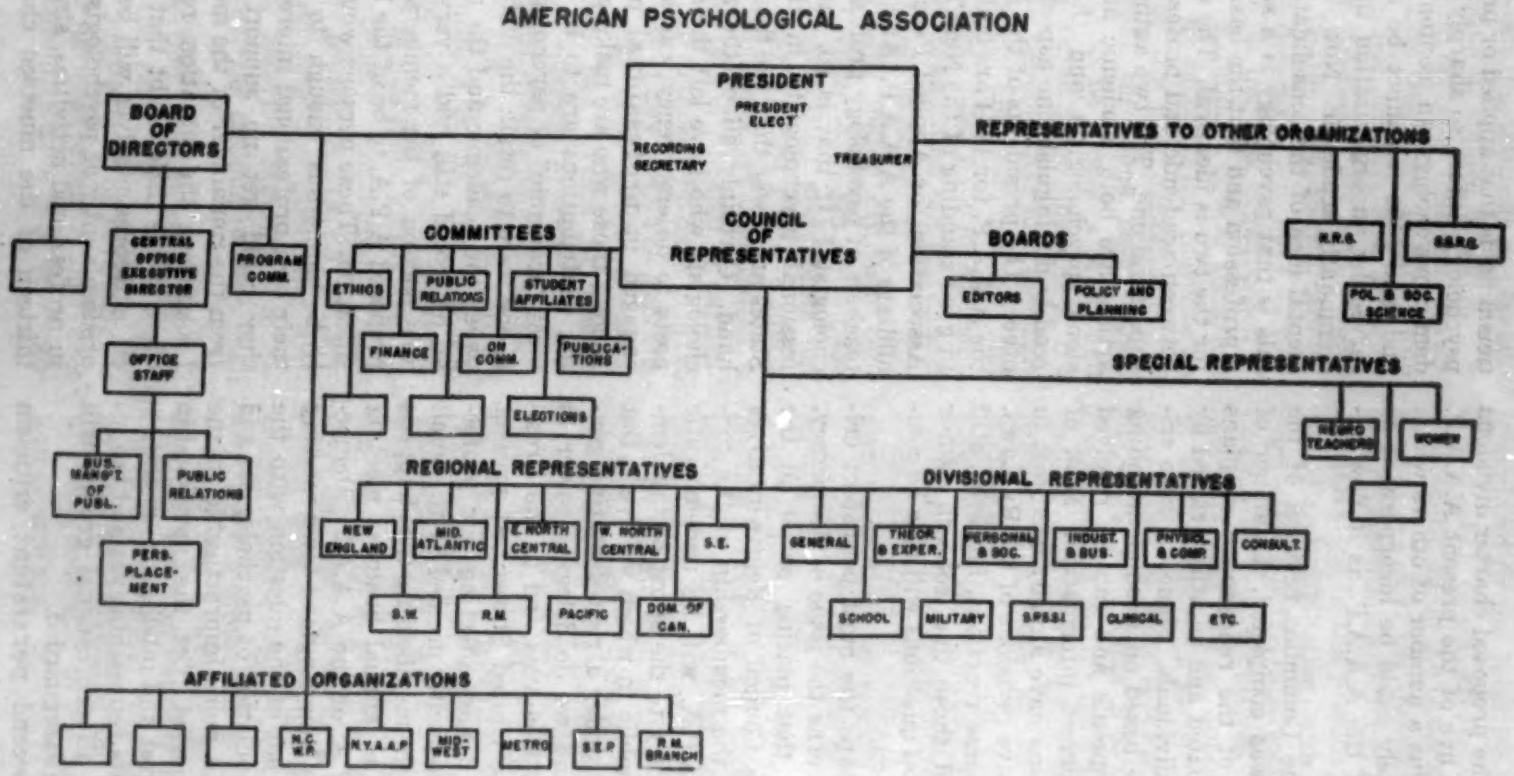
At the close of the Convention, a Continuation Committee was appointed to carry on the task of preparing appropriate By-Laws. This group worked during the summer of 1943 and submitted a detailed report to the delegates and governing bodies of the nine national organizations in time for consideration at the annual meetings of the A.A.A.P. and A.P.A. held in September 1943 in Evanston, Illinois.

Both the Board of Governors of the A.A.A.P. and the Council of the A.P.A. approved in principle the recommendations of the Convention and submitted the unification proposals to the members present at the business meetings of these associations. In each case, the members also approved in principle the recommendations of the Convention and directed that they be submitted to the entire membership of their societies for an advisory mail vote in the summer of 1944, to be followed by discussion and final vote at the business meetings in September 1944.

Meanwhile, a number of suggestions concerning various details of the By-Laws had been received by the Continuation Committee. At a joint meeting of the Board of Governors of the A.A.A.P. and the Council of the A.P.A., a Joint Committee representing the two socities was appointed to revise the By-Laws in accordance with these suggestions, to make them available in published form, and to conduct a public opinion poll of American psychologists to obtain their general reactions to the proposals, to ascertain their preferences for charter divisions in the new organization, and to solicit their suggestions for further revision of the By-Laws.

In the November 1943 issue of the *Psychological Bulletin*, the revised By-Laws were published and reprints were sent to all members of the A.A.A.P. who do not receive this publication as members of the A.P.A. Shortly thereafter, copies of the opinion poll were mailed to some 6,000 American psychologists. More than 3,600 ballots were returned together with many constructive suggestions for further revision of the By-Laws. Less than a dozen unfavorable comments were made on the reorganization plan as a whole.

On February 26-27, 1944, the Joint A.A.A.P–A.P.A. Committee met at Columbus, Ohio, to revise the By-Laws once more in accordance with the suggestions received from the field. Arrangements were made for this revision to be published in full in the July, 1944 issue of the *Psychological Bulletin*. Members of the A.A.A.P. are urged to read this carefully before voting on the Convention proposals. In visualizing the structure of the proposed consolidation, readers may find it helpful to refer to the organization chart presented with this article, which is based on the latest revision of the By-Laws. It will be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ETHICS
PUBLIC RELATIONS
STUDENT AFFILIATES
FINANCE
ON COMM.
PUBLICA-TIONS
ELECTIONS
REPRESENTATIVES TO OTHER ORGANIZATIONS
N.R.C.
S.S.R.C.
FOL. & SOC. SCIENCE
BOARDS
EDITORS
POLICY AND PLANNING
SPECIAL REPRESENTATIVES
WOMEN
REGIONAL REPRESENTATIVES
NEW ENGLAND
MID. ATLANTIC
E. NORTH CENTRAL
W. NORTH CENTRAL
S.E.
S.W.
R.M.
PACIFIC
DOM. OF CAN.
DIVISIONAL REPRESENTATIVES
GENERAL
THEOR. & EXPER.
PERSONAL & SOC.
INDUST. & BUS.
PHYSIOL. & COMP.
CONSULT.
SCHOOL
MILITARY
S.P.S.S.I.
CLINICAL
ETC.
AFFILIATED ORGANIZATIONS
N.C. W.P.
N.Y.A.A.P.
MID-WEST
METRO
S.E.P.
R.M. BRANCH

seen that the proposed charter divisions include all five of the present A.A.A.P. sections, plus a number of others which appropriately could be incorporated as sections of the A.A.A.P. as it now exists.

After the Columbus revision of the By-Laws was completed, a number of criticisms of the reorganization plans were circulated and questions raised by various individuals. Some of these criticisms are based on misunderstanding of the proposals and can be resolved through correct information. Most of the criticisms have already been met in the successive revisions of the By-Laws. A few adverse reactions, however, still persist and those that concern rather fundamental questions will now be commented upon.

1. Perhaps the most persistent criticism concerns the issue of democracy. It is said that placing power in the hands of a Council of Representatives elected by the membership of the consolidated A.P.A. will be undemocratic and "contrary to the spirit of the democratic republic in which we live." But we do live under a representative government and we do delegate power to the elected Congress and to the President of the United States. At present important issues affecting our profession are frequently decided by the small portion of the membership that happens to attend an annual business meeting of the A.P.A. or the A.A.A.P. Democracy of the New England town meeting variety is out of the question with the present population of psychologists and will be still more impracticable in the postwar period. Let the membership show interest and intelligence in the selection of its representatives and the interests of all professional groups will thereby be safeguarded.

2. A second persistent criticism ticism holds that applied or professional psychology differs so sharply from academic psychology in content, method and goal that it cannot be adequately served by an organization that is predominantly academic. Now, the fundamental idea of the consolidation proposals is that psychology is a science *and* a profession and that the basic training for the two is identical. The distinction between academic and professional is a superficial one. The two authors of this article are both academic and professional psychologists and they cannot readily distinguish one aspect from the other. The presidents of the A.P.A. and the A.A.A.P. for 1944 are both members in good standing of the New York State Association for Applied Psychology, an affiliate of the A.A.A.P. And are not all teachers of psychology professional psychologists? If that is so, the non-professional psychologists in the United States are fewer than the fingers on one hand. Certainly all of the many psychologists who have left their academic posts to do emergency war service are engaged in professional psychology. Among those who are making outstanding contributions are to be found the most "academic" of psychologists. Even if one were to retain the distinction between the academic and the professional, he would still find a very considerable portion of the membership of the proposed A.P.A. to be of the latter classification. These persons would certainly be numerous enough to safeguard their own professional interests even if they could get no support whatever from the remainder of the membership. Looking at the situation realistically, there seems little doubt that the Council of Representatives will be composed predominantly of psychologists engaged in professional activities, since at least thirteen of the nineteen charter divi-

sions represent the interests of psychologists working in applied fields.

3. A third criticism that deserves attention is that those psychologists who are members of societies now affiliated with the A.A.A.P., but are not members of either of the two parent groups (A.P.A. or A.A.A.P), will have no representation in the new organization if the Board of Affiliates type of structure should not be adopted. But they *can* be members of the new organization, if they warrant the name psychologist. They *ought* to be members of it, and they will *want* to be members of it, because of the benefits that such membership will carry. The small minority that may not at first qualify for membership in the new organization can and should make the effort to do so.

4. A fourth major criticism concerns the divisional system within the proposed organization and points out probable overlappings and conflicts among the divisions. That is, indeed, a valid criticism and one that is particularly familiar to those who have to make classifications of any sort. The difficulty does not arise anew in the proposed consolidation but exists at present among the sections of the A.A.A.P. There is great overlapping in membership, for example, between the Clinical and Consulting Sections. It can be said in favor of the consolidated organization that the new plan allows for the utmost flexibility (considerably more than in the present A.A.A.P.), for setting up, revising and dissolving divisions, thus allowing experience to determine what the optimal pattern shall be.

An important question still unsettled concerns the relationship of regional, state and local groups of psychologists to the new national organization. Three major possibilities have been thoroughly explored by the Joint By-Laws Committee: (1) direct affiliation without representation on the Council (as in the present A.P.A.), (2) indirect affiliation and representation through a Board of Affiliates (as in the present A.A.A.P.), (3) direct affiliation with individual representation for each society on the Council of Representatives. Since considerable disagreement appears to exist in various quarters as to the relative advantages of these types of affiliation, the wisest plan seems to be to defer decision on this matter until the new society is organized and functioning. The problem of affiliated societies could be studied by the new Policy and Planning Board of the reorganized A.P.A. in conjunction with representatives from regional and local groups. A considered plan could then be worked out which would carry the approval of the various societies concerned.

It has been objected by various people that wartime is not an appropriate period for initiating changes in our national psychological organizations and that we should wait until after the war to discuss such proposals. These critics fail to realize that the urgent need for a united front in psychology has arisen from the inability of our present diffuse national organizations to meet the demands and opportunities of the war emergency. We are likewise unready, as a profession, to meet urgent postwar problems which are already upon us. Too long we have been preoccupied with our internal schisms and semantic controversies. It is high time, now, for the profession to come of age, mobilize its energies and resources through a unified national organization and fulfill its social responsibilities as an integrated scientific and professional group dedicated to the promotion of human welfare.

REPORT OF THE AUDITING COMMITTEE — 1944
AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR APPLIED PSYCHOLOGY, INC.

An official audit of the books of the Association was made by Louis R. Lawrence, accountant, and a report submitted to the Treasurer on January 1, 1944. The Auditing Committee met on February 17, 1944 to review this audit and now submits the following report on the financial status of the Association.

Summarized Financial Statement

Balance Sheet as of December 31, 1943

Assets		*Liabilities*	
First National Bank of Hartford	$6,936.99	1944 Dues Paid in 1943	$3,087.00
Cash on Hand	34.00	Surplus	3,676.24
Unpaid Dues	197.00	1943 Gain	404.75
	$7,167.99		$7,167.99

Statement of Income and Disbursements

Income		
Estimated Income from Unpaid Dues	$ 197.00	
Current Year Dues (1943)	4,363.00	
Prior to Current Year Dues	238.00	
Membership Application Fees	205.00	
Sale of JOURNAL OF CONSULTING PSYCHOLOGY (Nonmember Subscriptions and Reprints)	1,115.10	$6,118.10
Disbursements		
Application Fee Refunds	$ 30.00	
Secretary's Office	1,231.18	
Treasurer's Office	246.42	
Board of Affiliates	171.12	
Clinical Section	56.07	
Educational Section	45.14	
Consulting Section	18.29	
Industrial Section	7.73	
Board of Editors	29.68	
Committee on Relations with Social Work	60.00	
Office of Psychological Personnel	1,000.00	
Committee on Training for Applied Psychology	39.16	
Committee on Relations with Library Profession	75.00	
Intersociety Constitutional Convention	92.83	
Directory	1,021.33	
JOURNAL OF CONSULTING PSYCHOLOGY	1,589.40	
		$5,713.35
Total Net Gain as of December 31, 1943		$ 404.75

Respectfully submitted,
GUSTAVE A. FEINGOLD
R. H. MATHEWSON
STEPHEN HABBE, *Chairman*

News Notes

The Eighth Annual Meeting of the American Association for Applied Psychology will be held in Cleveland, Ohio, September 11-12. Joint meetings with the American Psychological Association and Section I of the American Association for the Advancement of Science are being arranged.

SERVICE OPPORTUNITIES

Psychologists have an extensive opportunity for service now and in the postwar period in connection with the necessary program of individual guidance and counseling. At the conclusion of the war, there will be more than ten million men and women returning from service to civilian occupations and there will be twenty million war workers facing a change in their occupational status. The adjustment problems which these persons will face require the services of professional counselors. If we assume that nine out of ten will make their own adjustment, it is apparent that several thousand counselors would be required to provide the necessary guidance for the remainder.

Several agencies have already been established on the national level to deal with portions of this problem. The Veterans Administration and the Vocational Rehabilitation Division of the Federal Security Agency are being greatly expanded to care for those who have been disabled. Their services include vocational counseling and training. The non-disabled service man can now secure help in his occupational readjustment from a variety of agencies including the Selective Service Boards, the American Red Cross, the United States Employment Service, the training facilities of the United States Office of Education and the War Manpower Commission. It is clear, however, that the establishment of national agencies does not suffice; the returning soldier must find his place in his own community. A full mobilization of the occupational, educational, and social facilities of each community must be achieved on the basis of local initiative. For this purpose community clinics and guidance centers will find a role of increasing importance and efforts should be made to augment the services provided in this way.

A survey of the magnitude of the problem makes it apparent that the number of trained, competent vocational counselors is now too small. The end of the war will release a number of men who have been trained in the Armed Services for such work, but it is clear that training of additional counselors will be essential. The War Manpower Commission has taken steps to facilitate such training by a survey of the functions and qualifications of vocational counselors and by the preparation of materials which will be made available for the training of counselors. Universities can make a distinct contribution by establishing well-designed programs of instruction which will be oriented towards the professional needs in the field of psychology. (— DONALD MARQUIS, Office of Psychological Personnel.)

Announcement is made of two senior

internships (residences) in psychology which will be open in September, 1944 at the Western State Psychiatric Hospital in affiliation with the Department of Psychology of the University of Pittsburgh under the immediate direction of Dr. Saul Rosenzweig. The positions are intended for advanced training in clinical psychology, broadly conceived to include the fields of psychological tests and counseling and experimental psychopathology. Either men or women with a master's degree in psychology and some clinical experience who wish to undertake a program for the doctor's degree are eligible.

At the hospital the candidate will receive advanced training in clinical procedures and carry on research toward the doctoral thesis; at the university graduate courses required for the doctor's degree will be taken. Full maintenance at the hospital, including board, room and laundry, is provided in addition to $75.00 a month. University courses may be taken at half-rate tuition ($5.00 per semester credit). Appointment will be made for one year subject to renewal if requirements are adequately met. Letters of application should be addressed to Dr. Grosvenor B. Pearson, director, Western State Psychiatric Hospital, Pittsburgh 13, Pennsylvania.

The Civil Service Commission of Wayne County, Michigan, announces a nation-wide examination for Psychologist I, to fill a current vacancy in the position of psychologist in a four-thousand bed mental hospital near Detroit. Both men and women are eligible, and minimum requirements include citizenship and graduation from an accredited college or university with a major in psychology. Desirable additional qualifications to be appropriately weighted are a master's degree or doctor's degree and clinical experience. The position will pay $2,640 to $3,120 (based on forty-hour week). The examination will be used to fill the position mentioned, and also provide an eligible list for psychologists in a county child guidance clinic attached to a juvenile court, and a county home and training school for retarded children. Provision will be made for applicants living in centers distant from Detroit to take the examination locally. Interested parties should write at once to the Civil Service Commission, 2200 Barlum Tower, Detroit 26, Michigan, for application forms.

Suggestions are being sought for the recruitment of a professional staff for a new child guidance clinic in Decatur and Macon County, Illinois. Plans for the establishment of the clinic are proceeding.

MEETINGS AND CONFERENCES

The present status of psychological services in the state hospitals and other welfare institutions was discussed in a paper by Phyllis Wittman, Ph.D., at the January meeting of the Illinois Association for Applied Psychology. A general ovation was given Dr. Wittman for her years of organization and research work at Elgin State Hospital and for her appointment as supervising psychologist of the Mental Hygiene Service of the Illinois Department of Public Welfare. Dr. Agnes Sharp, who presided at the meeting, presented a resume of a survey of psychological services in state hospitals, made by a committee of the Association under her chairmanship. A panel of state officials and representatives of the medical and social work professions paid tribute to the value of psychological services performed and expressed the need for expanded services.

Present and postwar problems were the themes of three major sessions conducted by the Ohio Association for Applied Psychology held at the Fort Hayes Hotel in Columbus, January 22-3. There was also a short business meeting. "The Psychological Aspects of International Relations," was the subject of a panel discussion under the chairmanship of Dr. Doris Twitchell-Allen, with discussants representing various fields as follows: Dr. Lloyd A. Cook, sociologist, Ohio State University, Dr. Esther Gaw, dean of women, Ohio State University, Dr. Clarence J. Leuba, professor of psychology, Antioch College, Dr. Robert D. Patton, economist, Ohio State University, and Professor Hastings, historian, Ohio Wesleyan University.

The audience participated in the discussion. Again and again consideration of international relations came back to a discussion of basic individual needs. Concensus of opinion appeared to be that laws and regulations for national and world living can stand the test of time only if they permit basic personal needs to be satisfied.

The evening meeting, sponsored by the group interested in school psychology, consisted of a discussion by Dr. George T. Harding, psychiatrist, of Columbus. He noted the increasingly closer working relationships developing between the two professions.

A panel discussion on the "Psychological Aspects of Industrial Relations," held Sunday morning, was participated in by two psychologists, Drs. Ohmann and Otis of Western Reserve University and a panel of discussants representing the CIO, AFL, and the management of the Curtis-Wright Corporation. Mrs. Ivah Deering, of Cincinnati, job analyst the junior industrial engineer, was chairman. With a strong divergence of opinion on minor points, there was agreement in major conclusions. Acceptance of the fact that insecurity is felt by management as well as labor formed the basis for understanding.

There was definite agreement that the industrial counselor might well avoid too definite an identification as psychologist. Such identification often nullifies the service. On the other hand, a person qualified as a psychologist can enter one of the regular industrial departments and succeed in a way otherwise impossible because he is not set off with a professional barrier.

As one concrete result of the panel, Dean Klein, of the College of Education of Ohio State University, suggested that it would be well for management, labor, educators and psychologists to plan together for the training of industrial counselors. He offered the facilities of the University for the establishment of such a program.

ANNOUNCEMENT

The editors of the JOURNAL desire to announce that in the future the JOURNAL will decline to publish communications annonymously. An unsigned contribution, entitled "Comments, Criticisms, and Suggestions on the By-Laws of the Proposed 'Reconstitution' of the American Psychological Association," published on pp. 121-4 in the March-April number was submitted by one author of recognized standing in the profession. Rejoinders will be welcomed, but further comments or communications will not be published without the author's signature.

The use of reduced type in the first six paragraphs of these comments was erroneous—ten-point type having been intended—and the editors regret the unnecessary confusion which resulted.

BOOK REVIEWS

MENTAL HYGIENE IN SCHOOL PRACTICE. By Norman Fenton. Stanford University, Cal.: Stanford University Press, 1943. Pages 455. Price, $4.00.

Despite many attempts, academic psychology has thus far failed to adapt itself effectively to the requirements of educational practice. Behaviorism failed largely by reason of its preoccupation with associative learning and its neglect of motivation. Modern learning theory —which owes its chief debt to Thorndike—does not suffer from these defects, but it has three other shortcomings: it has not sufficiently explored the psychology of language (and the special mental processes which language makes possible); it is only beginning to recognize the unique importance of the acquired (emotional), as contrasted with the organically given, motives; and it has as yet scarcely touched the whole area of integrative problem solving (character formation, moral planning, foresight, etc.). Gestalt psychology and organismic biology have been hailed by some educators as providing a more comprehensive and adequate conceptual system; but most of the importations from these fields have turned into mere shibboleths and slogans which neither further knowledge nor improve practice and which, in some instances, actually obscure important realities.[1]

Mental Hygiene in School Practice is a clearly written, authorative description of a point of view and a set of operations which, in the reviewer's opinion, are destined to provide a new and uniquely satisfactory solution to the problem of psychology in education. In broad outline, teacher training institutions may be said to have four major responsibilities: namely, to make sure that teachers know *what* to teach, *how* to teach, *why* they teach, and *whom* they teach. The first three of these responsibilities are discharged more or less adequately by training in the various subject-matter fields, in teaching methods, and in the philosophy of education; but most teachers begin, and some even end, their professional careers with no better knowledge of the dynamics of child behavior and personality than that afforded by common experience. Although not consciously designed or self-announced as a solution to this problem, *Mental Hygiene in School Practice* has the kind of orientation, organization, and contents which would seem to make it an ideal introduction to the sort of educational psychology that is so much needed but has never been quite supplied.

This book is built around the problem of what can be done in and by schools to increase the "wholesomeness"[2] of the emotional and social life of pupils, teachers, and, indirectly, of the community at large. It begins with the familiar and the accepted and proceeds gradually, without alarm or offense, to the relatively technical and esoteric. Pleasing style and frequent reference to surveys, experiments, case histories, and the author's own rich background of experience sustain a lively interest. But the reader is not only well instructed; he is also inspired to *do*. While holding no animus toward pure science, the author draws heavily from social work, medicine, psychiatry, and psychoanalysis and makes application and service take on equal dignity and importance. At the same time, he realistically warns the prospective worker in the various guidance specialities of limitations and sources of discouragement.

Tailored for maximal reader use and convenience, this book is divided into five parts as follows: (I) how mental hygiene serves the school (three chapters); (II) fundamental point of view in the practice of mental hygiene (three chapters); (III) individual guidance: the theory and practice of school case work

[1] Psychological conflict is a case in point. In stressing the primacy of "organized wholes," many writers state or imply that living organisms—since they "always react as unified totalities"—are incapable of being functionally "parted" or "divided." For such writers "wholeness" is inherent and indestructable, instead of being something hard won and precariously maintained.

[2] "Wholesomeness" is a happy substitution for the current verbalisms about "the whole child." Unlike the latter, the concept of wholesomeness explicitly acknowledges the possibility and danger of mental disharmony and does not make a fetish of forced analogies from the fields of embryology and complex perceptual functions.

(six chapters); (IV) mental hygiene and the teacher (five chapters); and (V) mental hygiene and community life (three chapters). At the end of most chapters is a summary of "implications for school practice," and at the end of each section there is a list of useful "exercises" and special references. The last 52 pages of the book comprise four appendices, a bibliography of 412 well selected titles, and separate author and subject indices.

The reader will find that the concepts of "need" and "symptom" are used somewhat less precisely than might be desired; but the book has so much to recommend it, not only as a first text in educational psychology, but also as a handbook "of practical value to classroom teachers, administrators, and the many laymen who support the program of education," that elaboration of these two defects, without a much more extended listing of the book's many excellences, would be quite out of place. One must read *Mental Hygiene in School Practice* for himself to see how richly freighted it is with wisdom, good will, and practical suggestions, and to appreciate how long and well the author has labored to write a fine, sincere book.

O. Hobart Mowrer
Harvard University

INTRODUCTION TO EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN. By Harry J. Baker. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1944. Pp. 396. $3.50.

With the places of many who have been called to the armed services and to war production being filled very effectively by persons with various types of handicaps the wise training of exceptional children presents a very real challenge to educators today. Dr. Baker has met this challenge. His book is written primarily for the classroom teacher and the administrator, but it also should satisfy the interests and needs of parents, child guidance workers, and others concerned with the problems presented by exceptional children.

"Exceptional" is used as a more inclusive term than "handicapped" since it embraces children from minor to extreme degrees of deviation in some desirable as well as many undesirable traits. Throughout his discussion the author stresses the point that exceptional children are fundamentally similar to average children, differing in degree not kind, and hence likenesses rather than differences should be emphasized. In keeping with this viewpoint the discussion of each type of deviate starts with the child who varies but slightly from the average and proceeds to those with more extreme deviations. For example, in Chapter III the mechanics of vision and minor visual handicaps are presented, Chapter IV considers children who should benefit from sight saving classes and in Chapter V the blind are discussed. By stressing and interpreting the needs of the mild deviates, who in many cases are more misunderstood and neglected than are some children with extreme variations, the book embraces a wider group of children than most authors have included.

Following a brief introduction in which problems of general education as they pertain to exceptional children are considered, Dr. Baker classifies the types of deviates under five main divisions. Part II discusses children whose handicaps are primarily physical, Part III the problems of children ranging from the feeble-minded to the gifted, Part IV children with neurological and psychogenic diseases, Part V troublesome behavior adjustments, and Part VI various types of educational disability.

A wealth of information is presented on the most commonly found types of handicaps based on a warm and intimate understanding gained through years of painstaking study. Most of the data on the various handicaps are based on recognized studies by outstanding workers in each field as well as on many studies carried on by the author and his staff in the Detroit Public Schools.

The problems of exceptional children are considered chiefly from the standpoint of a large city school system. Many of the suggestions for treatment are not applicable to small towns and rural communities where the same problems must be met with smaller numbers of children and usually with very limited facilities. Some educators may well take issue with Dr. Baker on the extent to which the problems of certain groups should be met by segregation. Not all would agree that, "The evils of any type of segregation are mostly 'straw men' in the minds of those who may be opposed for various reasons."

The book is written in a lucid style, and relatively nontechnical language is used. It should fill the need as a basic text for an introductory course on exceptional children far better than anything now available.

Lillian G. Portenier
University of Wyoming

CORRESPONDENCE

[In response to questions raised by some of the members of the American Association for Applied Psychology in regard to the plans being formulated for the reconstitution of the American Psychological Association, Dr. C. M. Louttit was invited to clarify some of the issues about which information was felt to be needed. His reply, which follows, is the first discussion of these questions offered for publication in the JOURNAL. *A charter member of the AAAP, Dr. Louttit has been one of the most interested participants in the Association's activities and has served successively as its executive secretary and president. His statements combined with the discussion by President Poffenberger and Secretary Bryan in this number of the* JOURNAL *are intended to serve the membership of the AAAP who will vote in the near future on the proposed national reorganization.*—EDITOR.]

To the Editor:

I am making this statement, asked for in your letter of 4 May 1944, in the form of a letter so as to give an opportunity for greater informality than would be possible otherwise. You are at liberty, of course, to publish this letter as though it were a more formal statement.

Your letter asks for a statement on the issues underlying what you call "the proposed merger of the American Psychological Association and American Association for Applied Psychology," and the implication is that I perhaps can make such a statement because of having participated in all the discussions.[1] Unfortunately, I did not have an opportunity of being a member of many of the groups who worked on the early phases of the proposal and so I fear my statement may not be of too great value. Further, I would say that the proposals for a reconstituted APA should not be thought of as simply a merger of the two associations; rather it is a plan for the reunifying of organized psychology in America.

I suppose that the ultimate roots of the proposal now before the psychological public go back to the middle thirties when increasing self-recognition of certain specialty groups, and the apparent lethargy on the part of the APA to recognize them, lead to the formation of at least three national organizations, namely the AAAP, the Psychometric Society and the SPSSI. The formation of these societies formalized certain special interests, but that this did not mean a real division of psychology is shown by the fact that in no case that I know of did a member of any of the new organizations resign his membership in the APA. During the intervening years there has been apparently a reorientation within the existing APA in the direction of recognizing the special interests of these new societies. This has increased rather than lessened the divided loyalties which of necessity exist when individuals remain associated with two or more closely related organizations.

Even as early as 1939 with the beginning of the national emergency, it became evident that the organizational disunity in American psychology was working against the most efficient utilization of psychology in the war effort. The recognition of this resulted in the formation of the Emergency Committee, composed of official representatives of the several societies and having delegated authority from the societies to speak for all the profession. This committee during the course of it's many meetings recognized that the continuing problems of the war and the anticipated problems of the postwar period would find psychology again poorly prepared unless there were greater unity than there had been in 1939. A Subcommittee on Planning, with Dr. Yerkes as chairman, was appointed which, after a broad visioned study, concluded that fundamental to future growth was the need for organizational unity in the profession. The Subcommittee offered several alternate plans to achieve unity, but beyond this point they did not go.

In the fall of 1942 the report of this Subcommittee was made available to the several associations who were invited to elect repre-

[1] [This term was used in some of the early public discussions of the question under consideration, at which time organized groups of psychologists were being invited to consider the benefits of merging the interests of the American Association for Applied Psychology with those of the American Psychological Association for the purpose of forming one unified professional body representing American psychology.—EDITOR.]

sentatives to an intersociety convention. It is from this point on that all actions which have been taken, all deliberations made, and the published reports thereof have been the work of officially appointed representatives of the associations. Any suggestion that a "full blown plan to be accepted or rejected as proposed" is being imposed by some outside agency is entirely and completely erroneous. The published "Tentative By-Laws for a Reconstituted APA" which has been circulated to all psychologists and is now before the psychological profession for discussion, is completely and entirely the work of upwards of fifty of the foremost American psychologists who have at all times been acting for all of their colleagues. It is quite evident that it would be completely impossible to have some four thousand psychologits sit down and as a body attempt to work out any sort of a reasonable organization. A working basis has been prepared by a small number and is being submitted to the larger number for approval or modification. As a result of the publication of these By-Laws in 1943 there have come a number of suggestions which have been carefully considered and which have influenced the revision of the By-Laws to be published shortly. Obviously, revision could go on for the next hundred years but this would be manifestly absurd. It is felt by the present Joint Committee, to which has been delegated the power to formulate by-laws for presentation to the societies, that the time is now advisable for doing so. If a majority of individual psychologists feel that the plan their appointed representatives have to present is unsatisfactory, they have the privilege of all members of democratic societies of refusing it. No individual can honestly say that he has been kept in the dark concerning what has gone on because, as the appended list indicates, there has been much written and the issues have been frequently discussed.[2]

You ask four specific questions which I can undertake to answer only as an individual, because I was not present at most of the meetings that led up to the present formulation of the By-Laws.

First you ask, "What considerations led to proposing the merger?" Again, may I point out that there is no proposal for a merger. The proposal is that there be organized one strong national society which will represent American psychology to the nonpsychological public. Inasmuch as life operates only by cooperation and concession, the present proposal has in effect adopted the name of the American Psychological Association and the essence of the AAAP organization. While legally the proposal amounts to amending the By-Laws of the corporation of the APA, it is in point of fact the constitution of a completely new association.

The second question, "What pros and cons were discussed?" is difficult to answer because it is not clear what you mean by pros and cons. If they refer specifically to the question of what you call a "merger" then I say that there were none because no merger is being proposed. If they refer to the issue of unification itself, then a full answer would be far too extensive for the present purpose. The major factor was the necessity for being prepared to meet the postwar problems with unity and solidity rather than dissension and weakness. I believe that I have covered the major elements in this situation in my presidential address which you so kindly published the first part of this year [5].

Your third question, "What reasons can you give for the action taken by the Committee?"

[2] The following are the papers which are concerned with the several matters of the new organization. They are directly or indirectly fererred to in my letter.

1. Yerkes, R. M. (Ch.) et al. "First Report of the Subcommittee on Survey and Planning for Psychology," *Psychological Bulletin*, 1942, 39: 619-30.
2. ———. "Psychology as Science and Profession," *Psychological Bulletin*, 1942, 39: 761-72.
3. Anderson, J. E. "Outcome of the Intersociety Constitutional Convention," *Psychological Bulletin*, 1943, 40: 585-88.
4. Various. "Recommendations of the Intersociety Constitutional Convention of Psychologists," *Psychological Bulletin*, 1943, 40: 621-47.
5. Louttit, C. M. "Psychology During the War and Afterward," JOURNAL OF CONSULTING PSYCHOLOGY, 1944, 8: 1-7.
6. Valentine, W. L. and Anderson, J. E. "Chart of the Proposed APA Reorganization," *Psychological Bulletin*, 1944, 41: 43.
7. Anderson, E. E. "A Note on the Proposed By-Laws for a Reconstituted APA," *Psychological Bulletin*, 1944, 41: 230-34.
8. Anderson, J. E. "A Note on the Meeting of the Joint Constitutional Committee of APA and the AAAP," *Psychological Bulletin*, 1944, 41: 235-36.
9. Peatman, J. G. "Note: Shall Affiliated Organizations Have Direct Representation on the Proposed Council of Representatives?" *Psychological Bulletin*, 1944, 41: 300-303.

is essentially unanswerable because there are at least five committees all jointly representing various psychological organizations which have discussed and worked on this matter and you do not specify to which of these you refer. The current Joint Committee has taken no action except that of making relatively minor revisions in wording and method of presenting the By-Laws—both as a result of their own deliberations and as a result of suggestions sent in by members. The Intersociety Constitutional Convention meeting in May 1943 discussed a large number of details, but always fundamental to their discussions was the question of how can we best achieve unity for our profession. I was fortunately able to attend two half-day sessions of this convention and I was most forcibly struck with the high standard of debate and the willingness on the part of all representatives to give the many points of view a full and complete hearing. The reason for their formulating a set of by-laws was quite evidently in order to get the results of their deliberations before all psychologists.

Your fourth question reads, "The AAAP was set up to be an organization of professional workers. How is this new organization going to take care of this purpose?" To me it seems quite clear that a new organization will take care of this purpose in exactly the same way that the present AAAP does, only because of its greater size and because it will eliminate the present divided loyalties, it will be able to do so more efficiently. I am afraid that there is a surprising lack of understanding among many psychologists of the possibilities that psychology may have in widely diverging avenues of social and public affairs. The new organization will give opportunity for all types of psychology to be equally presented to the nonpsychological public. We of the AAAP too frequently forget that such areas as psychophysics and physiological psychology have very significant practical applications. To the present time the applications in these areas have not been well explored, and the proposed new society would justify its existence if it were to successfully publicize these possibilities and nothing else. Furthermore, because of the confusion which exists in the minds of nonpsychologists concerning the relations of the APA and the AAAP, even the personnel field, with which the AAAP is most concerned, is not being given a fair representation. It is in ways such as these that the new organization should prove more effective than the present several organizations.

While I am no longer in a position to keep currently abreast of all of the arguments for and against the proposals, I have had opportunity from time to time of reading letters from psychologists concerning it. It appears to me that most of the arguments thus far advanced in opposition have been petty and concerned with personal or sectional interests; they lose sight of the profession as a whole. One of the most frequent questions raised is concerning the status of state and regional societies. In terms of the great possibilities that a strong national organization offers, it appears almost infantile that they should be sacrificed because the Psychological Club of Podunk does not feel it is getting its place in the sun. If there is to be a national organization there must be machinery by which it can operate. The proposed By-Laws are a blue print of such machinery. There, of course, will always be disagreement as to the details of such a blue print. It is my feeling that disagreements on such details need not and should not interfere with the action on the broad principles involved.

It seems to me that there is only one issue in the whole matter: "Does American psychology need a strong unified organization representing all of its many specialties which can present a common front to the nonpsychological public?" If the answer to this question is "yes" then I think the only consistent action on the part of psychologists is to establish a new national organization and worry about many of the internal problems at a future date. I, of course, feel the answer is "yes," and that action must be taken now so that our profession will be ready to deal with postwar problems, and not spend a year or more in fumbling as it did in preparing for war.

I am not sure that you will feel this is an adequate answer to the questions of your letter. It is my attempt to state my feelings concerning the many problems. I cannot do more because I was not a participant in most of the discussions which have lead up to the present proposed By-Laws.

Sincerely yours,

C. M. LOUTTIT
Commander, USNR

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